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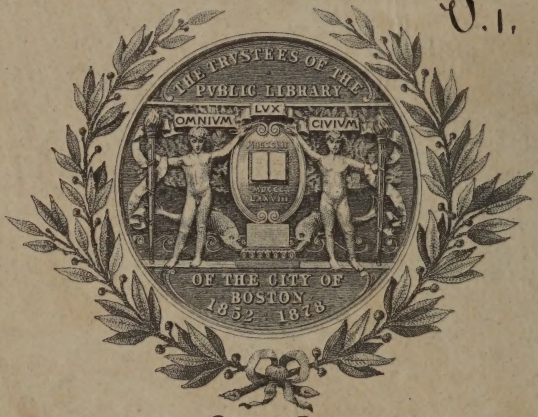

GIVEN BY

D. M. Balfour.

For Morse's Geography.

THE WORLD.

E.G.Gridley sc. Broad Way N.York.

From Arrowsmith's Map of the World.

Published by Thomas & Andrews

1805

THE

American Universal Geography:

OR A

VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE

OF ALL THE

EMPIRES, KINGDOMS, STATES AND REPUBLICKS

IN THE KNOWN WORLD,

AND OF THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA IN PARTICULAR.

IN TWO PARTS.

THE FIRST PART

Treats of Astronomical Geography, and other useful preliminaries to the study of Geography, in an enlarged and improved Introduction...of the Western or American Continent...of its Discovery...its Aboriginal Inhabitants, and whence they came...its Divisions...but more particularly of the United States of America, generally and individually...of their Situation, Extent, Civil Divisions, Rivers, Lakes, Climate, Mountains, Soil, Produce, Natural History, Commerce, Manufactures, Population, Character, Curiosities, Waters, Springs, Mines and Minerals, Military Strength, Government, Islands, History of the War, and the succeeding Events...Closing with a View of the British, Spanish, French, Portuguese, and other Dominions, on the Continent and in the West-Indies.

THE SECOND PART

Describes at large, and from the latest and best Authorities, the present State, in respect to the above-mentioned particulars, of the Eastern Continent and its Islands...as divided into Europe, Asia and Africa...and subdivided into Empires, Kingdoms and Republicks.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

An improved Catalogue of Names of Places, and their Geographical Situation, alphabetically arranged:
An enlarged Chronological Table, of Remarkable Events from the Creation to the present Time:
A List of Ancient and Modern learned and eminent Men:—and
A Table of all the Monies of the World, reduced to Federal Currency.

THE WHOLE COMPREHENDING A COMPLETE AND IMPROVED

System of Modern Geography.

CALCULATED FOR AMERICANS.

Illustrated with Six Maps, and accompanied by a new and elegant

GENERAL ATLAS OF THE WORLD,

CONTAINING (IN A SEPARATE VOLUME) SIXTY-THREE MAPS, AND COMPRISING ALL THE NEW DISCOVERIES TO THE PRESENT TIME.

BY JEDIDIAH MORSE, D.D. F.A.A. S.H.S.
Minister of the Congregational Church in Charlestown.

PART FIRST.

THE INTRODUCTION revised by SAMUEL WEBBER, A.M.
Hollis Professor of Mathematicks and Natural Philosophy in the University at Cambridge.

PUBLISHED ACCORDING TO ACT OF CONGRESS.

Fifth Edition---Corrected and improved.

BOSTON:
PRINTED BY J. T. BUCKINGHAM, FOR THOMAS & ANDREWS.
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August, 1805.

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S. M. Balfour
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PREFACE.

THE first edition of this work was published in 1789, in an octavo volume of 534 pages. It was chiefly confined to a description of America, and called THE AMERICAN GEOGRAPHY.

In 1793, this work was enlarged to 1250 pages, and published in two volumes 8vo. under the title of THE AMERICAN UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY, as it professedly embraced a description of the whole world. Three years after it received a new and large impression, with very considerable improvements, and was increased in size to 1500 pages.

A fourth edition appeared in 1801 and 1802, which, though but little enlarged, was enriched with much new information, inserted in place of obsolete or less important matter, omitted or abridged.

In these successive editions there was a gradual increase in the number of maps. Though much pains were taken and great expense incurred to render this department of the work acceptable, and equal to the patronage it received from the publick; yet, owing to the imperfection of American maps, and the want of experienced artists in that branch of business, the author was never able to succeed in a degree equal to his wishes. In the present edition, however, this defect is remedied. It will be accompanied with a "New and elegant GENERAL ATLAS, comprising all the new discoveries to the present time, containing sixty-three maps, drawn by Arrowsmith and Lewis."

As this Atlas will make a third volume, and enhance the expense, as well as the value of the work, perhaps beyond the abilities of the less wealthy class of readers ; for their accommodation, a few general maps are still inserted in the work, in the usual manner, probably sufficient to satisfy their wishes, and some copies will be sold without the Atlas.

The paper and typographical execution of this edition are superior to that of any of the former editions. In consequence of the wonderful spirit of enterprize and discovery, particularly for exploring the unknown regions of the globe, and the flood of travels, voyages and other geographical works, which have lately issued from the press, the author has had the means of correcting and greatly enriching his work, of which he has endeavoured faithfully to avail himself. Of his fidelity and success in this respect, he is willing *that* publick should decide, for whose improvement and reputation, he has for twenty years assiduously laboured, and whose liberal patronage he has gratefully received.

Charlestown, August, 1805.

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ADDENDA.

IN page 26, line 16th, after the word *Herschel*, the reader is desired to insert, or recur to the following information, received since that part of the work was struck off.

Since the commencement of the present century *three new planets* have been discovered, two by M. Piazzi and Dr. Albert, named CERES and PALLAS; the other by M. Harding, of the Observatory of Lilienthal, near Bremen, on the first of September, 1804, and named JUNO. The orbits of the two former are between those of Mars and Jupiter, and according to Leland, revolve round the Sun, the one in about 4 years, 7 months and 10 days, the other in about 4 years, 7 months and 11 days. These periods will probably require correction. Juno is represented as similar to Ceres in light, and apparent magnitude.

In line 14th of the abovementioned page, and line 1 of page 29, read, the number of *well known* planets—and the sun and *well known* primary planets; because the late frequent discoveries of new planets belonging to our system, indicate, that there probably is yet a considerable body of small planets, which have hitherto escaped the most discerning eyes of astronomers.

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THE

American Universal Geography.

PART FIRST.

INTRODUCTION.

RISE AND PROGRESS OF GEOGRAPHY.

GEOGRAPHY* is a term derived from the Greek language, and literally signifies a description of the earth. It is a branch of mixed mathematicks, and treats of the nature, figure, and magnitude of the earth; the situation, extent, and appearance of different parts of its surface; its productions and inhabitants. Geography is said to be *universal*, when it describes the earth in general—*particular*, when it describes only a part.

It may be useful and entertaining, to begin this introduction to geography by tracing the outline of its history, or surveying, in a cursory manner, the principal stages by which it has advanced to its present state of improvement. A person, by observing the whole process of erecting an edifice, from the laying of the foundation to the finishing stroke of the superstructure, has a more perfect knowledge of the work, the manner of executing it, and the requisite means, than he could obtain by any examination after its completion. In like manner, a brief view of the rise and progress of geography will facilitate the acquisition of an accurate knowledge of its present state; it will show us the connection that subsists between this science and astronomy, and the necessity of some acquaintance with the one in order to a full understanding of the other.

The time when attention was first paid to the pleasing and useful study of geography, is unknown. It seems to be the general opinion, that the Greeks, who were the first cultivators of this science in Europe, received it either from the Egyptians or Babylonians; but it cannot be determined to which of these two nations belongs the honour of having invented it.

Geography was very imperfect in its beginning, and has advanced slowly toward its present degree of perfection. The true figure of the earth was unknown to its first inhabitants, and the earliest opinion

* Γεωγραφια, from γη the earth, and γραφω to describe.

seems to have been that, which would most naturally result from the first information given by the senses. It was considered as a large circular plane; and the heavens, in which the sun, moon, and stars, appear daily to move from east to west, were supposed not to be elevated to a very great height above it, and to have been created solely for its use and ornament. It is not known who first rejected this erroneous hypothesis, and showed that the figure of the earth is spherical; but it seems to have been done at a time of remote antiquity. For the accounts we have, relative to the proficiency made by the ancient Egyptians and Chaldeans in astronomy, particularly in the doctrine of eclipses, furnish sufficient evidence of their acquaintance with the sphericity of the earth.

It appears that the situation of places was first determined according to climates; and that geographers were then guided, in fixing on the climates, by the form and colour of certain animals, which were to be found in different countries. The appearance of Negroes, or what they call Ethiopians, and of the larger sized animals, as the rhinoceros and elephant, suggested to them the northern and southern limits of the torrid zone: For reason, said they, points out to us, that similar things appear in the same temperature of the elements; and that, whether they be plants or animals, they are produced according to the similar state of the air or climate under the same parallels, or in a situation that is similar, being equally distant from either pole. Such a gross manner of dividing the climates must be considered as one of the first rudiments of geography. A different and more scientifick method was used by the Egyptians and Babylonians, who determined the situation of places, or their distance from the equator, by observing *the length of their longest and shortest days.* And these observations were made with a species of sun-dial, having a *stilus* or *gnomon* erected perpendicularly upon a horizontal plane, by which the length of the shadow of the gnomon, in proportion to its height, might be measured.

It may be conjectured that travelling, soon after it began to be much practised in the world, gave rise to a kind of geography, which might furnish in some degree the requisite information relative to its way. Itineraries constituted this rudiment of geography. Some who had performed journies made a rough sketch or description of their routes, for the information of others who might afterward wish to travel in the same. The earliest specimen of this kind of which we have an account, is that of Sesostris, an Egyptian king and conqueror, who, as Eustathius relates, "having traversed great part of the earth, recorded his march in maps, and gave copies of his maps not only to the Egyptians, but to the Scythians, to their great astonishment." And according to the account of Apollonius of Rhodes, he marked the direction of the roads, and the boundaries of the land and sea, upon columns erected at Œa in Colchis. Some have imagined that the Jews made a map of the Holy Land, when they gave the different portions to the nine tribes at Shiloh; for Joshua tells us, that they were sent to walk through the land, and that they *described it in seven parts in a book;* and by Josephus we are informed, that when Joshua sent out people from the different tribes to measure the land,

he gave them as companions, persons well skilled in geometry. And the same historian afterwards says, that the men, who were sent, being ten in number, *having gone round and estimated the land*, returned to Joshua at Shiloh in the seventh month. From these accounts it seems probable, that a geometrical survey of the Holy Land was then made; but it cannot be fully determined, whether the mensuration was protracted and digested into a kind of map, or registered in numbers.

HOMER was first distinguished among the Greeks for his knowledge of the different nations of the earth, and the countries they inhabited. He has described so many places, and with such a degree of accuracy, that Strabo considered him as first among the geographers of ancient times.

A taste for the sciences led THALES, the father of Grecian philosophy, and the first of that people who can be considered as an astronomer, into Egypt, where he lived with the priests, receiving their instruction, and giving them some in return; for it appears, that he showed them a method of measuring the height of the pyramids by the length of their shadows. On his return to Greece he introduced some of the fundamental principles of geography and astronomy: Among other things he taught his countrymen that the earth is globular, and may be divided into five zones, by means of five parallel circles, viz. the equator, the two tropicks, and the two polar circles; and that the equator is cut obliquely by the ecliptick, and perpendicularly by the meridian. Thus he made them acquainted with the principal circles of the sphere.*

ANAXIMANDER, a disciple of Thales, is supposed by some to have been the first, who made a geographical map, and attempted to delineate the surface of the earth, with the boundaries of land and water, on an artificial globe. It is not improbable that he was acquainted with the map of Sesostris, who had sent copies of it throughout the then known world: and therefore has rather, perhaps, the merit of improving and extending the invention, than that of originating it. He was the author of the first Grecian map on record, which is mentioned by Strabo. It is conjectured that Hipparchus refers to the map of Anaximander under the title of the *ancient map*, which he preferred in a few particulars to that of Eratosthenes; and that it was a general map of all the world, as far as it was then known. The knowledge of the earth was indeed very limited at that time, as it scarcely extended beyond the temperate zone, and did not even comprise the whole of that. The extent of the representation of the world from east to west was twice as great as from south to north; hence the reason, why distances on the earth in the former direction were denominated *longitude*; and those in the latter, *latitude*. Maps were afterward multiplied.

Some idea of the maps of those times may be formed from what Herodotus relates of one, which Aristagoras, tyrant of Miletus, carried with him, when he went to make application to Cleomenes, king of Sparta, to attack the king of Persia, even in his palace at Susa, and

* See Definitions.

which he showed him, with a view of inducing him to engage in such an enterprise, for the purpose of restoring the Ionians to their ancient liberty. Herodotus observes, that Aristagoras carried with him, as the Lacedemonians say, a plate of brass, on which a description of the whole earth, with all the seas and rivers, was engraved. This account of the extent of the map is not to be taken in a literal sense, as it probably refers only to the whole of the intermediate countries to be traversed in the proposed march. And from the state of geography at that time, it seems rational to conclude, that by the *sea*, was meant no more than the Mediterranean ; by the *earth* or *land*, the coasts of that sea, and more particularly the Lesser Asia, extending toward the middle of Persia; and by the *rivers*, the Halys, Euphrates, and Tigris, which Herodotus informs us must have been crossed in the projected expedition. It contained one straight line, called the *Royal Highway*, with the royal stations or places of encampment from Sardis to Susa. Of these the whole number was 111 ; and the distance, 13,500 stadia, or 1687½ Roman miles of 8 stadia, or 5000 feet each.

Herodotus tells us, that 150 stadia were allowed for a day's march ; therefore 90 days would be requisite for performing the whole march at the rate of 18¾ Roman miles a day. If the extent of the English mile be to that of the Roman as 32 to 31 ; then 18¾ Roman miles are equal to about 18⅛ English miles.

Such itinerary maps of the places of encampment were of great importance to armies. Athenæus quotes Bæton as author of a work entitled *The Encampments of Alexander's March ;* he also cites Amyntas on the encampments. That conqueror had in his service two surveyors, Diognetus and Bæton, who measured and kept an account of his marches. Pliny and Strabo have preserved these measures. Arrian has handed down to us the particulars of the navigation of Nearchus and Onesicritus, who sailed back with Alexander's fleet from the mouth of the Indus to those of the Euphrates and Tigris. By reducing Tyre and Sidon, the Greeks informed themselves of all the places to which the Phenicians traded by sea ; and we know that their commerce extended even to the British islands. The successors of Alexander in the east, by carrying their conquests to the mouths of the Ganges, obtained a general knowledge of many parts of India. Ptolemy Evergetes led his armies into Abyssinia ; and from his marches and success in that distant country a general knowledge of it was obtained.

Eratosthenes was the first, who attempted to reduce geography to a regular system, and introduced a regular parallel of latitude. This was traced over certain places, where the longest day was of the same length. He began it at the straits of Gibraltar ; and it thence passed through the Sicilian sea, and near the southern extremities of Peloponnesus ; whence it was continued through the island of Rhodes and the bay of Issus ; and there it entered Cilicia, and having crossed the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, was extended to the mountains of India. By means of this line he endeavoured to rectify the errors of the ancient map, supposed to be that of Anaximander. In drawing this parallel he was regulated by observing where the long-

est day was 14¼ hours, which was afterwards found by Hipparchus to be the latitude of 36 degrees.

The first parallel through Rhodes was ever afterwards considered with a degree of preference as the foundation of all ancient maps: and many succeeding geographers attempted to measure the longitude of the then known world in stadia and miles, according to the extent of that line. Eratosthenes soon after attempted not only to draw other parallels of latitude, but also to trace a meridian at right angles to these, passing through Rhodes and Alexandria down to Syene and Meröe; and, as the progress he thus made naturally tended to enlarge his ideas, he at last attempted the much more difficult operation of determining the circumference of the globe, by an actual measurement of an arc of one of its great circles. He knew that the sun, at the summer solstice, was vertical to the inhabitants of Syene, a town on the confines of Ethiopia, under the tropick of Cancer, where they had a well sunk for the purpose of ascertaining the time of the solstice, which would be on the day when the rays of the sun fell perpendicularly on the bottom of the well. He observed by the shadow of a wire set perpendicularly in a hemispherical bason, how much the sun was distant from the zenith of Alexandria at the noon of the same day; and found that distance to be one fiftieth part of a great circle in the heavens. Then Syene and Alexandria being supposed to be under the same meridian, he concluded the distance between them to be the fiftieth part of a great circle upon the earth; and this distance being by measure 5,000 stadia, he concluded the circumference of the earth to be 250,000 stadia; but, as this number divided by 360 would give 694⅔ stadia to a degree, either Eratosthenes himself, or some of his followers, assigned the round number 700 stadia to a degree; which multiplied by 360, makes the circumference of the earth 252,000 stadia; whence both these measures are given by different authors as that of Eratosthenes.

The map of Eratosthenes appears to have contained little more than the states of Greece, and the dominions of the successors of Alexander, digested from the surveys that had been made. Strabo informs us, that Alexander very carefully examined the measures of his surveyors himself, having always his descriptions from the most skilful persons in every country; and that a copy of their surveys was given by Xenocles, his treasurer, to Patrocles the geographer, who, according to Pliny, was admiral of the fleets of Seleucus and Antiochus. His geographical work is often quoted both by Strabo and Pliny, and he seems to have furnished Eratosthenes with the principal materials and authorities for the oriental part of his map of the then known world; for the voyages of Patrocles under Seleucus upon the Caspian sea and elswhere were a kind of supplement to the surveys of Diognetus and Bæton, and the voyages of Nearchus and Onesicritus, the two admirals who were employed under Alexander. Eratosthenes has also quoted the voyages of Pytheas into the great Atlantick ocean, which gave him some faint idea of the western parts of Europe, but did not enable him to realize them in the outline of a map. Strabo says, that he was extremely ignorant of Spain, Gaul, Germany, and Britain, as well as of the Geti and Bastarni; he was equally ignorant of Italy,

the coasts of the Adriatick, Pontus, and all the countries toward the north.

Timocharis and Aristillus, who flourished about 300 years before the Christian era, seem to have been the first who attempted to fix the longitudes and latitudes of the fixed stars, by considering their situation with respect to the equator.* One of their observations gave rise to the discovery of the precession of the equinoxes, which was made by Hipparchus about 150 years afterward ; and he made use of their method in order to delineate the parallels of latitude and the meridians on the surface of the earth ; thus laying the first solid foundation of the science of geography, as we have it at the present time, and uniting it more closely to astronomy.

Although latitudes and longitudes were thus introduced by Hipparchus, it does not appear that any subsequent writers on the subject attended to them before the time of Ptolemy. Strabo, Vitruvius, and Pliny, have each entered into a minute geographical description of the situation of places, according to the lengths and shadows of the gnomon, without taking any notice of the degrees and minutes of longitude and latitude. The introduction of longitude and latitude into geography laid a foundation for making maps or delineations of the surface of the earth in plano, on a plan essentially different from any that had been attempted before, and much better. For the maps, on record before the time of Hipparchus, were little more than rude outlines and topographical sketches of different countries ; except only that of Eratosthenes, the imperfections of which appear in some measure from the account already given.

It appears, that war, though in most respects one of the greatest calamities that can befal a people, has been generally the occasion of the most accurate maps of different countries, and on this account geography made considerable advances about this time, in consequence of the progress of the Roman arms. For as the Romans were the *conquerors*, so they became the *surveyors* of the world. In all their provinces, we find, that camps were constructed every where at proper intervals and that roads were raised with substantial materials to form an easy communication between the different places of encampment. Every new war produced a new survey and itinerary of the countries which were the scenes of action ; so that the materials of geography increased with their wars. At the beginning of *the second Punick war*, according to Polybius, when Hannibal was preparing for his expedition against Rome, by crossing from Africa into Spain, and so through Gaul into Italy, the Romans measured or surveyed all these places with the greatest care. Julius Cæsar caused a general survey to be made of the whole Roman empire, by a decree of the senate. Three surveyors, who were said to have been very wise men and accomplished philosophers, were appointed to this business, and to each was assigned a different division of the empire. Zenodoxus completed his survey of the eastern part of the empire in 14 years, 5 months and 9

* The longitudes and latitudes of the stars were referred to the equator both by Timocharis and Hipparchus ; and never uniformly to the ecliptick, till after the precession of the equinoxes was fully established by Ptolemy.

days; Theodotus finished the northern part in 20 years, 8 months and 10 days; and Polyclitus, the southern part in 25 years, 1 month and 10 days. This survey was begun in the year 44, and finished in the year 19, before Christ. The Roman itineraries, that are still extant, show the degree of care and attention with which their surveys in all the different provinces were made; and Pliny has filled the third, fourth, and fifth books of his Natural History, with the geographical distances that were thus measured. There is likewise still preserved an ancient set of maps, called the *Peutingerian Table** or *map*, published by Velseus and Bertius, which gives a sufficient specimen of what Vegetius calls the *Itinera Picta*, designed for the better direction of their armies in their marches.

Strabo and Ptolemy were the most eminent of the ancient geographers. Strabo relates very little more than he saw himself; he made a vast number of voyages to obtain the information that was necessary, in order to give the requisite certainty to his accounts, and is very short in what he relates from others. He was a philosopher as well as a geographer. Good sense, perspicuity, accuracy, and solidity of judgment, are visible in every part of his works. The geography of Ptolemy is more extensive; it takes in a greater part of the earth, while it seems to be equally circumstantial every where; but this extent renders it liable to more errors. He had the merit of carrying into full execution and practice the invention of Hipparchus for designating the situation of places on the earth by latitude and longitude, after it had lain dormant upward of 250 years; and thus he greatly advanced the state of the science.

The Roman empire had been enlarged to its greatest extent, and all its provinces well known and surveyed, when Ptolemy, about 150 years after Christ, composed his system of geography. The principal materials he made use of in composing this work were, *the proportions of the gnomon to its shadow*, taken by different astronomers at the times of the equinoxes and solstices; *calculations* founded upon the lengths of the longest days; the *measures* or computed distances of the principal roads contained in the Roman surveys and itineraries; and the various *reports of travellers and navigators*, who often determined the distances of places by hearsay and conjecture. All these were compared together, and digested into one uniform body or system; and were afterward translated by him as far as was necessary in adopting the plan of Hipparchus, into the new mathematical language of *degrees* and *minutes of longitude* and *latitude*.

The degree of accuracy in the latitudes and longitudes, given by Ptolemy, depended upon the veracity of the facts or suggestions communicated to him, from which they were afterward deduced. We

* This table or map was found by Conrad Celtes, and purchased by Conrad Peutinger, a burgomaster, of Augsburg, from whom it derives its name. This ancient map was published and explained by Beatus Rhenanus and Marcus Velserus; it seems to have been first executed in the fourth century after Christ, and is a delineation of a journey through Europe and Asia, beginning at Hercules' Pillars, and ending at the ocean which terminated the conquests of Alexander.

must not therefore be surprised at the multitude of errors to be found there, when his original materials were so imperfect for executing so large a work as the fixing of the longitudes and latitudes of all the places, coasts, bays, and rivers of the then known world. His principal mistakes took their rise from certain astronomical observations and surveys, which were supposed to have been made with accuracy in an age prior to himself; and as that great author received and adopted them as genuine, having none more authentick, by which their accuracy might have been tried, and having otherwise no reason to suspect them; so succeeding geographers, for want of better information, were induced to copy and insert them in their maps, as being, in their opinion, of acknowledged and undoubted authenticity. These errors did not merely creep into the more distant extremities of his maps, which generally contain places less visited and more uncertain with respect to situation, but they were in the very centre of that part of the world, which was best known to the ancient Greeks and Romans, and where all the famed ancient astronomers had made their observations. Yet this system, with all its imperfections, continued in vogue till the beginning of the 17th century; and the capital errors of Ptolemy's work kept their place in all maps, by a sort of unquestioned prescription, down even to that time.

Little was done in geography from the days of Ptolemy to the restoration of learning in Europe; for the Arabian geographers copied and retailed all his principal errors. They observed indeed, under their Caliph Almanon, in the beginning of the ninth century, a degree of latitude on the plains of Singar or Shinar near Babylon, and found it equal to $56\frac{2}{3}$ Arabian miles, each of which is 4000 cubits or 6000 feet; hence they determined the circumference of the earth.

The ancients were acquainted with but a small part of the earth's surface. On the west the Atlantick ocean and British isles limited their knowledge. The Fortunate islands, now called the Canaries, were the remotest lands towards the south that were known to them. Their notions with regard to the northern countries were very imperfect. Though Scandinavia was known, yet that and some other countries on the same continent were considered as large islands. It is not easy to determine what place the ancients understood by *Ultima Thule*; many take it for Iceland, but Procopius thinks it was a part of Scandinavia. Their knowledge of Sarmatia and Scythia was far from extending to the sea which bounds Russia and Great Tartary on the north and east. Their discoveries went no farther than the Riphean mountains, which now divide Russia from Siberia. The western frontier of China seems to have bounded their knowledge on the east. Ptolemy indeed had a very imperfect notion of the southern parts of that extensive empire. How far the ancients extended their discoveries with regard to Africa cannot be certainly known. Some are of opinion, that they were acquainted with the whole coast, having sailed round the southern extremity, now called the Cape of Good Hope, and extended their voyages from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean. Ptolemy, however, supposed that Africa was not surrounded by the sea, but extended in its breadth eastwardly till it joined to India.

In the fifteenth century the Portuguese, animated with the desire of finding a passage to the East-Indies, pushed their enquiries along the western coast of Africa, till they found the Cape of Good Hope, in 1486; in 1497, Vasquez de Gama doubled the Cape, and the next year made a voyage to India, and thus completed the discovery of that country by the east. The passage being thus opened, several European nations, desirous of sharing in the rich commerce of the east, sent their ships to the Indian Sea, where they discovered the Asiatick islands, and penetrated to the empire of Japan. The voyages of the Russians have completed our knowledge of the eastern parts of the continent of Asia.

The Portuguese had but just crossed the equator, when CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, a native of Genoa, an intrepid and skilful navigator, conceived the idea of finding India by a western course. So great were the obstructions that presented themselves, that he spent about twenty years in projecting and preparing for this enterprise. At length, in 1492, he crossed the Atlantick ocean; but, instead of the Indies he discovered the *new world*—AMERICA.

The improvements in geography at the time of the revival of learning in Europe, and since, have been very much owing to the great progress of astronomy. More correct methods and instruments for observing the latitude have been invented; and the discovery of Jupiter's satellites afforded a much easier method of finding the longitude than was formerly known. Solar and lunar eclipses, transits of Mercury and Venus over the sun's disk, and occultations of the fixed stars by the moon also furnish means for determining longitudes. And since the *lunar tables* were improved by Professor Mayer, and *time keepers* by Mr. Harrison and others, this important object has been obtainable by *measuring distances of the moon from the sun and from certain fixed stars and by keeping time.* The voyages of different nations also which became more frequent, brought to our knowledge a vast number of countries utterly unknown before. The late voyages of Capt. Cook and other navigators, together with the travels of Messrs. Bruce, Park and others, have contributed greatly to the improvement of geography during the 18th century; so that now the geography of the utmost extremities of the earth is in a fair way of being much better known to the moderns, than that of the adjacent countries was to the ancients. This science, however, is yet very far from perfection; and our best maps* ought to be considered only as unfinished works, which are to be altered and corrected by farther observations and discoveries.

* The following facts will serve to give some idea of the want of accuracy in the *longitudes* of places. Dr. Bradley was of opinion, that there were but two places in England on the longitude of which we could depend, as accurately determined; that these were the *Observatory at Greenwich* and *Sherburn Castle*, the seat of the Earl of Macclesfield in Oxfordshire; and that their difference of longitude was 4′ in time. But even this difference has been found to be inaccurate by a transit of Venus, being only 3′ 47″. In the account of longitudes prefixed to Dr. Halley's Tables, the Lizard is said to be 4° 45′ from the Observatory, which is therefore 4° 40′ from London; according to others, it is 5°, 5° 5′, 5° 14′, and even 6°.

ASTRONOMY,

AS CONNECTED WITH, AND INTRODUCTORY TO, THE SCIENCE OF GEOGRAPHY.

THE earth is now universally considered as a planet, which, in company with six others, revolves round the sun as its centre. Some acquaintance with these and other heavenly bodies is necessary in order to a complete knowledge of geography. The science, which treats of the heavenly bodies, is called *Astronomy*. Hence the propriety of giving a short account of this science in this Introduction to Geography.

The sun, the most glorious of the heavenly luminaries, is the fountain of heat and light to the planets which revolve round it. The paths, which the planets describe in their revolutions, are called their *orbits*. The number of planets in the solar system is seven ; the names of which, according to their nearness to the sun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and Herschel.* The two first of these are called *inferior* planets, because they are nearer to the common centre of gravity of the system than the earth, or are *below* the earth with respect to that centre ; the other four are called *superior*, because with respect to said centre they are *above* the earth. Also the inferior planets are called *interior*, because their orbits are within that of the earth ; and the superior are called *exterior*, because their orbits are without the same.

These seven are called *primary planets*, in order to distinguish them from eighteen other bodies, called *secondary planets*, *moons*, or *satellites*, which revolve about their respective primaries from west to east, and at the same time accompany them round the sun in the same direction. The earth has one satellite, commonly by way of eminence, called *the moon ;* Jupiter has four ; Saturn seven ; and Herschel, six.

The supposition of a certain disposition of the heavenly bodies and the planetary orbits is called a *system of the world*. It results from those appearances of the bodies, which depend wholly on circumstances of this kind, or may be accounted for by a particular adjustment of them. The true system of the world is generally denominated the *Copernican* or *solar* system, and comprises the sun, the primary and secondary planets and the comets, which may be considered as a different species of planets, revolving with the rest about the sun as their common centre. Of those systems which have been formed, but are now entirely rejected by astronomers, the *Ptolemaick* and *Tychonick* have had such distinguished celebrity, and are now so frequently mentioned, that perhaps it may be useful to give some account of them in this place.

The PTOLEMAICK SYSTEM is so called from Claudius Ptolemy, a celebrated astronomer of Pelusium in Egypt, not because he was the author of it, but because he adopted and endeavoured to support it in his astronomical work called the *Almagest*, which is the only important book of ancient astronomy, that has come into our possesion. According

* Two others, it is said, have lately been discovered.

to this hypothesis, the earth is immoveably fixed in the centre of the universe, and all the other bodies revolve round it from east to west in the space of twenty-four hours, at distances which increase in the order in which they are here named, viz. the Moon, Mercury, Venus, the Sun, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the fixed stars. The sun and planets were supposed to be firmly set in separate crystalline spheres, inclosed by a concave one containing the fixed stars, which would of course be all equally distant from the earth. Above the starry sphere were imagined to be the two crystalline spheres, the *primum mobile*, communicating motion to all the interior spheres; and, finally, the *empyrean heaven* or *heaven of heavens*, to which a cubick form was attributed. Beside the above motion, performed in the course of twenty-four hours, the sun and planets were supposed to revolve about the earth in certain stated or periodical times, agreeably to their annual appearances.

This system owed its origin to a partial view of the appearances in the celestial motions. The motions observed were taken to be real. Not suspecting any motion of the earth, which of all things appeared to be most immoveably fixed, and unacquainted with the doctrine of motion in general, philosophers were unable to correct the deceptions of sense, to distinguish apparent from real motion, and in the latter to trace the cause of the former. The phenomena to be explained by this system are inconsistent with it, and show its absurdity in a very satisfactory manner. Even in the infancy of astronomy, those who endeavoured to explain the celestial motions on this hypothesis, were exceedingly embarrassed; as the science advanced, difficulties increased, and every new discovery reduced them to the necessity of adopting a new absurdity. And, though ignorance, bigotry and zeal laboured to support it, observation and reason long ago triumphed in its explosion and universal rejection by the learned.

The TYCHONICK or BRAHEAN SYSTEM was invented by Tycho Brahe, a nobleman of Denmark, and one of the most eminent astronomers of his time. Unwilling to admit any motion of the earth, particularly on account of some objections concieved to arise from certain passages of *Scripture*; and struck with the palpable absurdity of some parts of the Ptolemaick system, he endeavoured to establish a new one, more agreeable to his faith and astronomy. With Ptolemy he supposed the earth to be at rest in the centre of the universe, and the sun, planets and fixed stars to revolve about it in twenty-four hours. It was supposed that the moon's orbit was nearest to the earth; then the sun's; that Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, revolved about the sun as their centre, and accompanied it about the earth in the space of a year. As he denied the earth's diurnal rotation on its axis, he was obliged to admit one of the most gross absurdities of the Ptolemaick hypothesis, that is, the revolution of the whole universe, to its farthest visible limits, about the earth's axis in the space of a day, produced by the primum mobile. Some of his followers, however, varied from his system so far as to ascribe this apparent diurnal motion of the heavens to a real rotation of the earth on its axis, and were therefore called *Semi-Tychonicks*. But the annual motion is as evident as the diurnal, and both are now universally admitted by astronomers.

The COPERNICAN SYSTEM is so called from Copernicus, a native of Thorn in Royal Prussia, and is the TRUE SOLAR SYSTEM. It had been taught by some of the Pythagorean philosophers, but was nearly lost, when Copernicus undertook to restore it, and published new and demonstrative arguments in its favour. It supposes the sun to be in the centre of the system, and all the planets to move round him in the order already mentioned. These, together with the comets, form the constituent parts of the Solar System. See the Plate, where this is represented, and by which an adequate idea of the whole may easily be obtained.

But it must be observed, that, though the orbits of the planets be circles in the scheme, they are not really so, but ellipses, and the sun is placed in one of the foci. All the planets have *one* common focus, which is occupied by the sun. This supposition readily solves all the appearances observable in the motion of the planets, and also agrees with the strictest philosophical and mathematical reasoning.

All the planets are opaque and spherical bodies, and receive their light from the sun; and in their revolutions they are sometimes nearer to, and sometimes farther from, the sun, in consequence of that luminary not being placed in the centre of the orbits, and of the orbits being ellipses. Hence also we see the reason why the planets move faster as they approach nearer to the sun, and slower as they recede from it.

If a right line, called by some the *vector radius*, be drawn from the sun through any planet, and supposed to revolve round the sun with the planet, this line will describe, or pass over, every part of the plane of the orbit; so that the vector radius may be said to describe the area of the orbit.

In the solar system are observed two principal laws, which regulate the motions of the planets. These laws are the following:

1. "The planets describe equal areas in equal times." That is, the vector radius, in equal portions of time, describes equal areas or portions of the space contained within the planet's orbit.

2. "The squares of the periodical times of the planets are as the cubes of their mean distances from the sun." That is, as the square of the time which any planet takes to describe its orbit, is to the square of the time taken by any other planet to describe its orbit: so is the cube of the mean distance of the former from the sun to the cube of the mean distance of the latter from the sun.

These are two famous laws of Kepler, a great astronomer, who flourished about the beginning of the seventeenth century, and who deduced them from a multitude of observations; but the first, who showed the reason of these laws, was the great Sir Isaac Newton.

By the second law the relative distances of the planets from the sun are known; and were the real distance of any one of them determined, the real distances of all the others would be obtained. By the transits of Venus over the sun in 1761 and 1769, we now know the real distances of the planets from the sun much better than before: these, together with other necessary particulars for forming a competent idea of the solar system, are exhibited in the following table.

TABLE *of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the Sun and primary Planets in the Solar System.*

Names of the Planets.	Diameters in English Miles.	Mean distances from the sun in Eng. miles.	Annual periods round the sun.	Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit in English miles.	Hourly motion of its equator in English miles.	Inclination of axis to that of orbit.
			y. d. h.	d. h. m.			deg. min.
Sun	877547			25 10 0		4,519	8 0
Mercury	3189	36,387,583	0 87 23	unknown	105,000	unknown	unknown
Venus	7609	67,993,362	0 224 17	23 20	76,000	1,026	75 0
Earth	7928	94,000,474	1 or 365 6	1 or 23 56	67,000	1,038	23 28
Mars	5195	143,227,582	1 321 23	0 24 40	55,000	661	0 0
Jupiter	92414	471,974,585	11 314 14	0 9 56	29,000	29,237	0 0
Saturn	78236	896,705,301	29 167 2	0 10 16	22,000	23,932	30 0*
Herſch.	33954	1,793,698,244	82 150 18	unknown	16,000	unknown	unknown

The Moon revolves about the earth in an elliptical orbit, the earth being in one of its foci. The mean distance of the moon from the earth is about 240,000 miles, and the time of its rotation about its axis, which is performed with a uniform velocity, is equal to the mean time of its revolution about the earth, that is 27d. 7h. 43m. The time of its synodick revolution, or that which elapses between two successive conjunctions with the sun, or changes, is 29d. 12h. 44m. The diameter is 2326 miles and the inclination of the axis to that of the orbit is 6° 49′.

The four Satellites of Jupiter revolve about it in orbits that are nearly circular. The periodical time of the first of these satellites, or that nearest to the primary, is 1d. 18h. 28m. ; those of the others, 3d. 13h. 14m. ; 7d. 3h. 43m. ; and 16d. 16h. 32m. respectively in their order. According to Sir Isaac Newton, their distances from Jupiter are respectively 5·965, 9·494, 15·141, and 26·63 of the semidiameters of the primary.

The seven Satellites of Saturn revolve about it in the following periodical times respectively,† viz. 22h. 37m. ; 1d. 8h. 53m. ; 1d. 21h. 18m. ; 2d. 17h. 41m. ; 4d. 12h. 25m. ; 15d. 22h. 41m. and 79d. 7h. 49m. The two first of these satellites were discovered, and their periods determined by Dr. Herschel. He has also determined their distances from Saturn to be respectively 29′ 67″, and 36′ 79″ ; the distances of the others are 43½″, 56″, 1′ 18″, 3′, and 8′ 42½″ according to Cassini ; the semidiameter of Saturn, which is 39,118 miles, being 20″.

Saturn is also encompassed by a broad flat ring, the greatest apparent diameter of which is to that of the planet, as 9 is to 4. This ring appears to surround the planet without touching it, the distance between them being nearly equal to the breadth of the ring, or about 21,000 miles. According to Dr. Herschel, the ring is double, or consists of two concentrick rings, both situated exactly in the same plane. He also supposes it to revolve about an axis perpendicular to its plane, in 10h. 32′.

* The time of the diurnal rotation of Saturn, and the position of its axis, are deduced by Dr. Herschel from his observations on this planet.

† These satellites are here taken in the order of their distances and periods, without any reference to the order of time in which they were discovered.

The six SATELLITES of HERSCHEL, as well as the planet itself, were discovered by the celebrated astronomer, whose name the planet bears; and he makes the times of their synodick revolutions to be 5d. 21h. 25m.; 8d. 17h. 1m.; 10d. 23h. 4m; 13d. 11h. 5m; 38d. 1h. 49m. and 107d. 16h. 40m.; and the distances of four from the planet, in their order, 25″·5, 33″·09, 38″·57, 44″·23; the distance of the 5th and 6th respectively about double and quadruple that of the 4th, when the planet is at its mean distance; and according to his observations its diameter, which is 33,954 miles, appears to be not far from 4″.

The ancient Egyptian priests, to whom the Greeks owed all their philosophical learning, are supposed to have been the first acquainted with the true system of the world. Pythagoras learned it in Egypt and taught it to his disciples, after his return to Europe. But it was so totally forgotten during the ages of ignorance, that when Copernicus, a celebrated astronomer, revived it in the fifteenth century, he was considered rather as the author than the restorer. Some of the learned immediately adopted the hypothesis, and it would probably soon have been universally received, had it not met with a formidable opposition from an ignorant and bigotted clergy. Nursed in the lap of indolence, and inveterate enemies to every species of free and impartial inquiry, they condemned the Copernican system, under pretence of its being repugnant to the sacred writings. The thunder of the Vatican was employed to silence the voice of reason, and the dread of ecclesiastical censures almost deterred mankind from thinking. At last the reformation in religion gave a fatal blow to superstitious tyranny; the rays of learning broke through the night of ignorance, and genuine philosophy triumphed over the chicanery of the schools; mankind were now convinced, that the scriptures were never intended to explain systems of philosophy, but to make us humane, virtuous and happy; that it is agreeable to the great Author of our being to contemplate his works, and display the wonders of his creating hand. From this fortunate era the sciences made rapid strides toward perfection, and every day produced a discovery of some new truth, or the detection of some old error. Proofs were multiplied in confirmation of the Copernican system, which is now established on a foundation not to be shaken. The astonishing harmony which prevails among the several parts prove it to have been the work of a divine hand, and show that nothing less than infinite wisdom could have planned so beautiful a fabrick.

The limits to which we are confined will not admit of our multiplying proofs to establish the Copernican system; only the following, therefore, will be added; but these, if there were no other, would be abundantly sufficient for the purpose.

1. The planets Mercury and Venus are always observed to have two conjunctions with the sun, but no opposition. This could not happen, unless their orbits were circumscribed by that of the earth.

2. Mars, Jupiter and Saturn have each their conjunctions and oppositions with respect to the sun alternately and successively, which they could not have, unless their orbits were exterior to that of the earth.

3. The greatest elongation or distance of Mercury from the sun is about 28° 20′, and that of Venus 47° 48′; which answers exactly to their distance in the Copernican system; but according to the Ptolemaick, they must often be seen in opposition to him, or at the distance of 180 degrees.

4. In this disposition of the planets, all of them will be sometimes much nearer to the earth than at others; the consequence of which is, that their brightness and splendour, as well as their apparent diameters, will be proportionally greater at one time than at another; and this we observe to be true every day. Thus the apparent diameter of Venus, when greatest, is near one minute; when least, not more than ten seconds; that of Mars, when greatest, is twenty-two seconds; when least, only four. But if the Ptolemaick hypothesis be true, they must always be equal.

5. All the planets sometimes appear in direct motion; sometimes stationary, and sometimes retrograde. These appearances must happen according to the Copernican system, but are absolutely repugnant to any other.

6. The bodies of Mercury and Venus, in their superior conjunction with the sun, pass behind the body of that luminary, and in the inferior conjunction are seen to transit, or pass over, its disk, in the form of a round black spot. These phenomena are necessary in the Copernican system, but there could be no superior conjunction in that of Ptolemy.

7. The times in which these conjunctions, oppositions, stations and retrogradations of the planets happen, are not such as they would be, were the earth at rest in the centre; but precisely such as would happen, if the earth and all the planets move about the sun, in the order and with the velocities assigned them in the Copernican system. Consequently this must be the true system of the world.

Besides the planets, we perceive in the expanse of the universe many other bodies, belonging to the solar system, that seem to have much more irregular motions. These are the comets, that descending from the far distant parts of the system with great rapidity, surprise us with the singular appearance of a train, or tail, which accompanies them: they become visible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and after a short stay, go off again to vast distances, and disappear. They approach the sun with an accelerated motion, pass the perihelion, or point of the orbit least distant from the sun, with astonishing swiftness, and then retire with a retarded motion. In general they are supposed to be, at their first appearance, nearer to us than Jupiter, and the distance of their perehelions from the sun, is much less than the earth's distance from him. They are large opaque bodies, moving in various directions; some from west to east, others from east to west; some in orbits that make but small angles with the ecliptick, others in orbits that are almost perpendicular to it. From a comparison of the orbits that have been determined, it appears, that the comets, which have a retrograde motion, are nearly equal in number to those which have a direct motion; and that most of the orbits are inclined to the ecliptick in large angles. The figures of the comets are very different. Some of them emit luminous matter on all sides, resembling hair, and are

called hairy comets; others have a long, luminous, transparent tail, projecting from the part which is opposite to the sun; and others are round, without any appearance of hair or tail. The tail increases in length with the comet's approach to the sun, gains its utmost extent soon after the perihelion is passed, and then decreases till it disappears.* Their magnitudes also are different. Some appear no bigger than fixed stars, others as large as Venus, and others much larger.

Though some of the ancients had more just notions of these bodies, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like those we see in it every night, and in a few moments vanishing, no care was taken to observe or record their phenomena accurately till of late. Hence this part of astronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is, that they are solid, compact bodies, like other planets, moving about the sun in very eccentrick ellipses, and regulated by the same laws of gravity, so as to describe equal areas in equal times, by radii drawn from the focus occupied by the sun, which is common to all their orbits. The number of comets belonging to our system is unknown. All those which have been observed, moved through the ethereal regions and the orbits of the planets, without suffering the least sensible resistance in their motions, which sufficiently proves that the planets do not move in solid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of 3 only are known with any great degree of certainty, which are found to return at intervals of 75 or 76, 129 and 575 years; and of these, that which appeared in 1680, is the most remarkable. This comet at its greatest distance, is about 11 thousand 200 millions of miles from the sun, while its least distance from the centre of the sun is about 564 thousand miles, within less than one third part of the sun's semidiameter from his surface. In that part of its orbit which is nearest to the sun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour, or above 244 miles in a second; a velocity much greater than any we are acquainted with, that of light excepted; and the sun, as seen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, consequently 40,000 times as large as it appears to us. The astonishing distance to which this comet removes, naturally suggests to our imagination the vast distance between our sun and the nearest of the fixed stars, of whose attraction all the comets must keep clear, in order to return periodically, and revolve about the sun.

Modern astronomy shows the terror and dismay, which comets once occasioned, to have been groundless, and teaches us to view them, as well as other celestial appearances, with composure. While ignorant of nature, we are easily alarmed at her operations, but acquaintance with the constancy and regularity with which she proceeds will tend to quiet our apprehensions and inspire us with confidence; fears, which hovered in the darkness that covered her, fly before the rising light of science. Among all the comets hitherto observed, there is not one, which, according to the knowledge we have of it, will probably produce any fatal effects on our earth: and it may, perhaps be

* An ingenious Essay on Comets, particularly their *tails* and *habitableness*, was published at Salem, in the state of Massachusetts, in 1772, by ANDREW OLIVER, Esq.

allowable to conjecture, that farther discoveries in this part of astronomy will lessen the probability of danger, or increase that of safety.

The FIXED STARS, though they constitute no part of the solar system, must be considered here, as they are of great use in the practice of geography. They are readily known from the planets by their twinkling. They are observed never to change their situations, with respect to each other, and hence they have obtained the name of *fixed* stars. They shine by their own light; and there is the greatest reason to think that they are suns fixed in the centres of other systems, having planets and comets revolving round them, like our sun. They appear of various sizes, on account of their different distances; the sizes, visible to the naked eye, are generally distinguished into six classes, called *magnitudes;* the largest and brightest are said to be of the first magnitude; those of the next class, or degree of brightness, are called stars of the second magnitude; and so on to the sixth, which includes the least, that are visible to the naked eye. But besides these there are scattered in every part of the heavens a prodigious number of others, called *telescopick stars*, from their being invisible without the assistance of a telescope. Great part of the modern astronomy, indeed, owes both its rise and perfection to that admirable machine. The distance between the earth and the nearest fixed star is astonishing. The orbit of the earth is probably about 188 millions of miles in diameter; yet this prodigious extent has no effect on the distance of the star, which appears as far from the earth when in the nearest, as when in the farthest point of its orbit. It appears, that if a cannon ball continued to move with the same velocity as when first discharged from the piece, or 480 miles an hour, it would not reach the nearest fixed star in less than 4,468,000 years. Light, which is transmitted from one body to another almost instantaneously, is more than 3 years and 1 month in passing from the fixed stars to the earth; so that if all the fixed stars were now struck out of existence, they would appear to us to remain in their stations for that space of time. It is impossible, therefore, that they should borrow their light from the sun, like the planets. The distance is consequently too great for the power of human beings to conceive; the understanding is bewildered and lost in the contemplation. But though the fixed stars are placed at such immense distances from us and from each other, and are doubtless suns, illuminating different worlds, yet astronomers, in order to facilitate their computations, consider them as all equally distant from our sun, forming the surface of a sphere, inclosing our system, and called the *celestial sphere;* a supposition which may be strictly admitted, considering the astonishing distance of the nearest fixed star.

A *constellation* is a number of stars which appear to lie in the neighbourhood of one another on the surface of the celestial sphere, and which astronomers, for the easy remembrance of them, suppose to be circumscribed with the outlines of some animal or other figure, whereby the motions of the planets are more readily described and compared. These constellations are 80 in number; 12 of which are in the zodiack, 36 northward of it, and 32 southward. The number of stars in the

whole, given in Flamstead's catalogue, amounts to two thousand eight hundred and forty-three, of which twenty are of the first, sixty-five of the second, two hundred and five of the third, four hundred and eighty five of the fourth, six hundred and forty-eight of the fifth, and one thousand four hundred and twenty of the sixth magnitude. Beside the constellations there are other stars, which are not so arranged as to have been formed into constellations, and are therefore called *unformed stars*. Some stars, from their cloudy appearance, are denominated *nebulæ*.

The whole number of stars may be justly considered as admitting of no limitation; it increases in our view, as the telescope approximates to perfection. In this instrument the milky way appears to consist of innumerable small stars, which form one continued dense cluster, and, by their blended rays, diffuse a whiteness over that part of the firmament.

These stars, by preserving their situation in respect to one another, serve astronomers as fixed points, whereby the motions of other bodies may be marked and compared; and accordingly, their relative positions have been sought after with the most assiduous care, during many ages, and catalogues of them at different times have been published agreeable to preceding observations. Among these, one of the most complete is that contained in the Historia Cœlestis of Mr. Flamstead. Mr. Wollaston has also published a very large and valuable work of this kind, under the title of "A specimen of a general Astronomical Catalogue, arranged in zones of north polar distance, and adapted to Jan. 1, 1790."

Dr. Herschel, to whose ingenuity and diligence in astronomical researches the world is so much indebted, has evinced what great discoveries may be made by improvements in the instruments of observation. Of these discoveries M. De la Lande speaks thus: "In passing rapidly over the heavens with his new telescope, the universe increased under his eye; 44,000 stars, seen in the space of a few degrees, seemed to indicate that there were 75,000,000 in the heavens."

To consider these stars as designed merely to decorate the sky and form a rich and beautiful canopy for this earth, would derogate from the wisdom of the Creator. Astronomers, therefore, with much reason, have considered the fixed stars as so many suns, attended with a number of revolving planets, which they illuminate, warm and cherish. If this be true, there are as many systems as fixed stars. These may also revolve round one common centre, forming one immense system of systems. All these systems, we may conceive, are filled with inhabitants suited to their respective climes; and are so many theatres, on which the great Creator and Governour of the Universe displays his infinite power, wisdom and goodness. Such a view of the starry heavens must fill the mind of every contemplative beholder with sublime, magnificent and glorious ideas of the Creator!

FIGURE, MAGNITUDE, AND MOTION OF THE EARTH.

THE fundamental principles of geography are the spherical figure of the earth; its rotation on its axis; its revolution round the sun; and the position of the axis, or line, round which it revolves, with re-

gard to the celestial luminaries. That the earth and sea, taken together, constitute one vast sphere is demonstrable by the following arguments :

1. Such a figure is best adapted to motion 2. From analogy, all the other planets being spherical. 3. The higher the eye is placed, the more extensive is the prospect ; whence it is common for sailors to climb up to the top of the masts to discover land or ships at a distance. But this would give them no advantage were it not for the convexity of the earth ; for, on an infinitely extended plane, objects would be visible at the same distance, whether the eye were high or low ; nor would any of them vanish till the angle under which they appeared became too small to be perceptible. 4. To people on shore, the mast of a ship at sea appears before the hull ; but were the earth an infinite plane, not the highest objects, but the largest, would be longest visible ; and the mast of a ship would disappear, by reason of the smallness of the angle it subtends, long before the hull. 5. To people at sea, the land disappears, though near enough to be visible, were it not for the intervening convexity of the water. 6. The earth has often been sailed round ; as by Magellan, Drake, Dampier, Anson, Cook, and many others ; which demonstrates that the surface of the ocean is spherical ; and that the land is very little different, may easily be proved from the small elevation of any part of it above the surface of the water. The mouths of rivers which run 1000 miles, are not more than one mile below their sources ; and the highest mountains are not quite four miles of perpendicular height ; so that, though some parts of the land be elevated into hills, and others depressed into vallies, the whole may still be accounted spherical. 7. An undeniable, and indeed, ocular demonstration of the spherical figure of the earth is taken from the round figure of its shadow, which falls upon the moon in the time of eclipses. As various sides of the earth are turned toward the sun, during the time of different phenomena of this kind, and the shadow, in all cases, appears circular, it is impossible to suppose the figure of the earth to be any other than spherical. The inequalities of its surface have no effect upon the earth's shadow on the moon ; for as the diameter of the terraqueous globe is very little less than 8000 miles, and the height of the highest mountain on the earth not quite four, we cannot account the latter any more than the 2000th part of the former ; so that the mountains bear no more proportion to the bulk of the earth, than grains of dust bear to that of a common globe.

The earth is not truly spherical, but an *oblate spheroid*, or depressed about the poles, and elevated about the equator. Its diameter from east to west is, according to Sir Isaac Newton, about 34 miles longer than that from north to south. As many find it difficult to conceive how people can stand on opposite sides of the globe without falling off, their conception may be assisted by supposing all the various bodies on the earth's surface to be of iron, and a very large magnet to be placed at the centre ; then, all the bodies being attracted toward the centre by the magnet, they may be kept from falling off, which way soever the earth turns. Now the attraction of gravitation operates on *all* bodies as that of magnetism does on iron only.

If the earth be supposed to be an exact globe, and its diameter to be 7928 miles, then its circumference will be 24,906 miles. If a degree, at a mean rate, be supposed to be 69·31 miles, the circumference will be 24,951·6 miles. But if the earth be supposed to be an oblate spheroid, the above to be the mean diameter, and the difference between the equatorial diameter and axis to be 34 miles, then the circumference of the equator will be about 24,960 miles, and the perimeter of an elliptical meridian 24,906. Though the earth be an oblate spheroid, yet the difference between the two diameters and their two circumferences is but small. Had the difference been considerable, it would have considerably affected all nautical and geographical conclusions deduced from a sphere; but the smallness of the difference renders the error scarcely discernible, unless the distance be very great, or the latitudes very high. In the construction of globes, maps, charts, &c. the earth is considered as a perfect sphere.

The earth, like the rest of the planets, has two motions, one round its axis, the other round the sun. It revolves round its axis, with respect to the sun, once in 24 hours, and causes a continual succession of day and night, and an *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies from east to west. By this motion on its axis the inhabitants at the equator are carried 1043 miles in an hour. It completes its revolution round the sun once in a year, and occasions the difference in the length of the days and nights, and the agreeable variety in the seasons. The diameter of the earth's orbit is about 188,000,948 miles, and its circumference 590,622,447 miles. Its hourly motion in its orbit is 67,376 miles, which is 140 times greater than that of a cannon ball, which moves about eight miles in a minute; and would be 22 years, 124 days and 6 hours in passing from the earth to the sun.

Many of the terrestrial phenomena depend on the globular figure of the earth, and the position of its axis with regard to the sun; particularly the rising and setting of the celestial luminaries, the length of the days and nights, &c. It belongs to geography to take notice of the difference between the same phenomena in different parts of the earth. Thus, though the sun rise and set all over the earth, the circumstances of its doing so are very different in different countries. The most remarkable of these circumstances is the duration of the light, not only of the sun itself, but of the twilight, before it rises and after it sets. In the equatorial regions, for instance, darkness comes on very soon after sunset; because the convexity of the earth comes quickly in between the eye of the observer and the luminary, the motion of the earth being much more rapid there than any where else. In the latitude of 45° the time of twilight varies from 1h. 42m. to 2h. 39m.; and the inequality increases as one approaches the elevated pole. It is always longest at the time of the summer solstice, and in all countries, that have more than 48½° of northern latitude, it continues through the night in the month of June. Under the poles it lasts seven weeks. As we approach the elevated pole, the twilight becomes brighter and brighter, until at last the sun does not appear to touch the horizon, but moves in a circle at some distance above it for many days successively. In like manner, during

the winter, the same luminary sinks lower and lower, until at last it does not appear at all; and there is only a dim twinkling of twilight for an hour or two in the middle of the day. By reason of the refraction of the atmosphere, however, the time of darkness, even in the most inhospitable climates, is always less than that of light; and so remarkable is the effect of this property, that in the year 1682, when some Dutch navigators wintered in Nova-Zembla, the sun was visible to them 16 days before it could have been seen above the horizon, had there been no atmosphere, or had it not been endowed with a refractive power. A farther reason of all this is, that in the northern and southern regions, only a small part of the convexity of the globe is interposed between us and the sun for many days, and in the high latitudes, none at all. In the warmer climates the sun has often a beautiful appearance at rising and setting, by reason of the refraction of its light through the vapours, which are copiously raised in those parts. In the colder regions halos, parhelia, auroræ boreales and other meteors are frequent; the two former on account of the great quantity of vapour continually flying from the warm regions of the equator to the colder ones of the poles. The aurora borealis is owing, as some say, to the electrical matter imbibed by the earth from the sun in the warm climates, and passing off through the upper regions of the atmosphere to the place whence it came. In high northern latitudes, thunder and lightning are either unknown, or but seldom heard of; but the more terrible phenomena of earthquakes, volcanoes, &c. are by no means unfrequent. These, however, seem only to affect islands and the maritime parts of the continent.

Notwithstanding the seeming inequality in the distribution of light and darkness, it is certain, that throughout the whole world, there is nearly an equal proportion of light diffused on every part, if we disregard what is absorbed by clouds, vapours, and the atmosphere itself. The equatorial regions have indeed the most intense light during the day, but the nights are long and dark; while on the other hand, in the northerly and southerly parts, though the sun shine less powerfully, yet the length of time that it appears above the horizon, with the longer duration of twilight, makes up for the seeming deficiency.

Were the earth a perfect plane, and the sun vertical to any, it would appear at the same time, to be nearly vertical to every part of it: for in comparison with the immense magnitude of that luminary, the diameter of this globe itself is but very small, and would scarcely make a sensible difference in the apparent angle of its altitude. By means of the globular figure of the earth, also, together with the great disparity between the diameters of the two bodies, some advantage is given to the day over the night: for thus the sun, being immensely the larger of the two, shines upon more than half of the earth; whence the unenlightened part has a shorter way to go before it again receives the benefit of the solar rays. This difference is greater in the inferior planets, Venus and Mercury, than in the earth.

DOCTRINE OF THE SPHERE.

DEFINITIONS AND PRINCIPLES.

A SPHERE literally signifies a ball or globe. By the *celestial sphere* is meant the apparent concave orb, which invests the earth, and in which all the heavenly bodies appear to be situated at equal distances from the eye. In order to facilitate the knowledge of the places of these bodies in the sphere, several circles are supposed to be described on its surface and are denominated *the circles of the sphere*. The circles of the celestial sphere are supposed to have their centre coincident with that of the earth, and to mark on its surface, where their planes cut it, correspondent circles; so that the celestial and terrestrial spheres or globes are considered as concentrick, and as having correspondent circles. A machine composed of circles or rings, representing the circles of the sphere, and joined together in the same relative positions, is called the *armillary** *sphere*.

In geography the planes of the circles which the sun apparently describes in the heavens, are supposed to pass through the earth, and marked on its surface. We may imagine as many circles as we please to be described on the earth, and their planes to be extended to the celestial sphere till they mark concentrick ones in the heavens. A circle is divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees; a degree is divided into 60 minutes, a minute into 60 seconds. The circles supposed by geographers to be described on the sphere, are denominated *great* and *small* circles.

Great Circles are those which divide either the celestial or terrestrial sphere into two equal parts. Of these there six, the Equator, the Meridian, the Ecliptick, the Horizon and the two Colures.

Small Circles are those which divide the sphere into two unequal parts; of which there are four, the two Tropicks and the two Polar Circles.

Axis and Poles of the Earth.] The axis of the earth is an imaginary line, passing through its centre from north to south. The extreme points of the axis are called the poles.

Equator.] The equator is that line or circle which encompasses the middle of the earth, dividing the northern half from the southern. This line is often called the *equinoctial*, because, when the sun appears therein, the days and nights are equal in all parts of the earth. From this line latitude is reckoned.

Meridian.] This circle, represented on the artificial globe by a brass ring, passes through the poles of the earth, and the *zenith* and the *nadir*, crossing the equator at right angles and dividing the globe into eastern and western hemispheres. It is called *meridian* from the Latin *meridies*, *mid-day*; because when the sun comes to the south part of this circle, it is called noon, and the day is half spent. There is an infinite number of meridians, which are different for all places, situated eastward or westward from each other. Geographers assume one of the meridians for the first; commonly that which passes through the metropolis of their own country. The English make the meridian

* From *armilla* a bracelet, or ring.

of London, or rather that of their Royal Observatory, the first ; the French, that of Paris.†

Ecliptick.] The ecliptick is a great circle, in which the earth performs its annual revolution round the sun, or in which the sun seems to move round the earth, once in a year. This circle is called the *ecliptick*, from the word eclipse, because no eclipse of the sun or moon happens, but when the moon is in or near the plane of this circle. It makes an angle with the equator of 23° 28′, and intersects it in two opposite points, called the *equinoctial points*, because when the sun is in either of these points, it has no declination, and shines equally on both poles, and the day is then equal to the night all over the earth. The times when the sun passes through these points are the 20th of March, and 23d of September : The former is called the *vernal* equinox, the latter the *autumnal.*

The ecliptick is divided into 12 equal parts, of 30 degrees each, called *signs.* These begin at the vernal intersection of the ecliptick with the equator, and are numbered from west to east. The names and characters of the signs, with the months in which the sun enters them, are as follow :

Latin Names.	English Names.	Characters.	Months.
1 Aries	The Ram	♈	March
2 Taurus	The Bull	♉	April
3 Gemini	The Twins	♊	May
4 Cancer	The Crab	♋	June
5 Leo	The Lion	♌	July
6 Virgo	The Virgin	♍	August
7 Libra	The Scales	♎	September
8 Scorpio	The Scorpion	♏	October
9 Sagittarius	The Archer	♐	November
10 Capricornus	The Goat	♑	December
11 Aquarius	The Water Bearer	♒	January
12 Pisces	The Fishes	♓	February

The first six are called the northern signs, and the latter the southern ; because the former possess that half of the ecliptick, which lies to the northward of the equinoctial, and the latter that half which lies to the southward.

Zodiack.] If two circles be drawn parallel to the ecliptick, at the distance of eight degrees on each side of it, the space, girdle, or zone, included between these two parallels, 16 degrees broad, and divided in the middle by the ecliptick, will comprehend within it the orbits of all the planets, and is called the *zodiack.*

Horizon.] The horizon, represented on the artificial globe by a broad wooden circle, divides it into the upper and lower hemispheres. There are, geographically speaking, two horizons, the sensible and the rational. The sensible horizon is that circle which limits our prospect ; where the sky and the land or water appear to meet. The

† In America, the meridians of Philadelphia and the University at Cambridge are probably best determined, but it does not appear that either of these is generally adopted as the first. At present, it is supposed, the most general practice is to reckon longitude from the meridian of the English Royal Observatory at Greenwich, near London.

rational or real horizon is a circle, whose plane passes through the centre of the earth, dividing it into the upper and lower hemispheres.

The horizon is divided into four quarters, and each quarter into 90 degrees. The four quartering points, viz. east, west, north, and south, are called the *cardinal points*. The poles of the horizon are the zenith and the nadir. The former is the point directly over our heads; the latter the opposite, or the point directly under our feet.

Colures.] The two meridians that pass through the four cardinal points of the ecliptick have particular names; that which passes through the first degrees of Aries and Libra is called the *equinoctial colure*, and that which passes through the first degrees of Cancer and Capricorn is termed the *solstitial colure*. These colures cut each other at right angles in the poles.

Circles of longitude in the heavens are great circles of the sphere, imagined to pass through the poles of the ecliptick, and to cut the ecliptick at right angles, as the meridians do the equinoctial.

The latitude of a heavenly body is an arc of a circle of longitude, intercepted between the centre of the body and the ecliptick. If the object be on the north side of the ecliptick, it is said to be in north latitude; if on the south, in south latitude.

Parallels of celestial latitude are small circles, drawn parallel to the ecliptick.

The longitude of a heavenly body is an arc of the ecliptick, intercepted between the first point of Aries and a circle of longitude passing through the centre of the body.

The right ascension of a heavenly body is an arc of the equinoctial, intercepted between the first point of Aries and a meridian passing through the centre of the body.

The declination of a heavenly body is an arc of the meridian, intercepted between the centre of the body and the equinoctial. If the body be on the north side of the equinoctial, it is said to have north declination; if on the south side, it has south declination. All small circles in the celestial sphere, parallel to the equinoctial, are called *parallels of declination*. Among these are the tropick of Cancer, the tropick of Capricorn, the Arctick and Antarctick circles.

Tropicks.] The tropicks are two circles drawn parallel to the equator, at the distance of 23° 28′ on each side of it. These circles form the limits of the ecliptick, or the sun's declination from the equator. That which is in the northern hemisphere is called the *tropick of Cancer*, because it touches the ecliptick in the sign Cancer; and that in the southern hemisphere is called the *tropick of Capricorn*, because it touches the ecliptick in the sign Capricorn. On the 21st of June the sun is in Cancer, and we have the longest day. On the 21st of December the sun is in Capricorn, and we have the shortest day. They are called *tropicks*,* because when the sun arives at them, it returns again to the equator.

Polar Circles.] The two polar circles are described round the poles at the distance of 23° 28′. The northern is called the *arctick circle*, from *arctos*, or the bear, a constellation situated in that part of the

* From τρέπω, to turn.

heavens; the *southern*, being opposite to the former, is called the *antarctick circle*. The polar circles bound the places where the sun sets daily. Beyond them the sun revolves without setting daily.

The azimuths, or *vertical circles*, are great circles, passing through the zenith and nadir, and cutting the horizon at right angles.

The altitude of a heavenly body is an arc of a vertical circle, intercepted between the centre of the object and the horizon.

The zenith distance of a heavenly body is an arc of a vertical circle, intercepted between the centre of the body and the zenith.

The meridian altitude, or *meridian zenith distance*, is the altitude, or zenith distance when the object is in the meridian.

A *direct* or *right sphere* is when both the poles are in the horizon and the equinoctial passes through the zenith; so that the equator and all its parallels, such as the tropicks and polar circles, make right angles with the horizon, and are divided by it into two equal parts. Hence, that the sun, moon and stars ascend directly above, and descend directly below, the horizon. This position is peculiar to those places, which are under the equator.

An *oblique sphere* is that, where all the diurnal motions are oblique to the horizon. This is common to all parts of the earth, except those under the poles and the equator. In an oblique sphere, one of the poles is elevated above, and the other depressed below, the horizon.

A *parallel sphere* is when one pole being in the zenith and the other in the nadir, the equator and all its parallels are parallel to the horizon. This position is peculiar to those parts which lie directly under the poles.

Zones.] The surface of the earth is supposed to be divided into five unequal parts, called zones, each of which is terminated by two parallels of latitude. Of these five zones, one is called the torrid or burning zone; two are styled frigid or frozen; and two temperate; names adapted to the degree of heat and cold to which their situations are liable.

The torrid zone is that portion of the earth, over every part of which the sun is perpendicular at some time of the year. The breadth of this zone is nearly 47 degrees; extending from 23 degrees and 28 minutes north to 23 degrees and 28 minutes south latitude. The equator passes through the middle of this zone, which is terminated on the north by the parallel of latitude, called the tropick of Cancer, and on the south by the parallel called the tropick of Capricorn. The ancients considered this zone as uninhabitable, on account of the heat, which they thought too great to be supported by any human being, or even by the vegetable creation; but experience has long since refuted this notion.

Many parts of the torrid zone are remarkably populous; and it has been found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail in almost every part of the torrid zone, render the earth not only inhabitable, but also so fruitful, that two harvests a year are very common. All sorts of spices and drugs are almost solely produced there; and it furnishes more perfect metals, precious stones and pearls than all the rest of the earth.

This zone comprehends the East and West-Indies, Philippine Islands, the greater part of South-America and Africa, and almost all Capt. Cook's discoveries, including the northern parts of New-Holland.

The frigid zones are those regions round the poles, where the sun does not rise for some days in the winter, nor set for some days in the summer. The two poles are the centres of these zones, which extend from these points to 23 degrees and 28 minutes; that is, they are bounded by the northern and southern parallels of latitude of 66 degrees and 32 minutes. The part that lies in the northern hemisphere is called the *north* frigid zone, and is bounded by a parallel called the arctick, or north polar circle; and that in the southern hemisphere the *south* frigid zone, and the parallel of latitude which bounds it is called the antarctick, or south polar circle.

The northern frigid zone comprehends Nova-Zembla, Lapland, part of Norway, Baffin's Bay, part of Greenland, and part of Siberia. The southern frigid zone has no land known to us.

The *two temperate zones* are the spaces contained between the tropicks and polar circles.

The northern temperate zone contains almost all Europe, the greater part of Asia, part of Africa, the United States of America and the British Colonies. The southern temperate zone comprises the south part of New-Holland, (including Botany Bay) Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn.

In the frigid zones the longest day is never less than 24 hours; in the temperate zones it is not quite so much, and in the torrid never more than 13½ hours.

Climates.] The word *climate* has two significations, one common, and the other geographical. In common language, the word is used to denote the difference in the seasons and the temperature of the air. When two places differ in these respects, they are said to be in different climates.

In a *geographical* sense, a climate is a tract of the earth's surface, included between the equator and a parallel of latitude, or between two parallels, of such a breadth, that the length of the day in one is half an hour longer than in the other. Within the polar circles, however, the breadth of a climate is such, that the length of the longest day, or the longest time of the sun's continuance above the horizon without setting, is a month longer in one parallel, as you proceed toward the elevated pole, than in the other.

Under the equator the day is always 12 hours long. The longest days gradually increase in length as you advance either northward or southward from the equator. The space between the equator and a parallel, at the distance of 8° 25′, where the longest days are twelve hours and a half long, is called the first climate; and by conceiving parallels drawn in this manner, at the increase of every half hour, it will be found that there are 24 climates between the equator and each of the polar circles; and 48 in the whole.

Under the polar circles, the longest day is 24 hours; and on that day the sun, when lowest, skims the horizon without setting. As you advance from the polar circles to the poles, the sun continues above the horizon for days, weeks and months, in a constant increase, until

you arrive at the poles, where the sun is six months above the horizon; and the whole year may be said to consist of but one day and one night.

There are 30 climates between the equator and either pole. In the first 24, between the equator and either polar circle, the period of increase for every climate is half an hour. In the other six, between either polar circle and its pole, the period of increase for each climate is a month. These climates continually decrease in breadth as you proceed from the equator, as may be seen by attending to the following Table:

TABLE.

Climates.	Longest day where the climate ends.	Latitudes in which the respective climates end.	*Names of Countries and remarkable places, situated in the respective climates, north of the Equator.*
			Within the first climate lie,
		d. m.	
1	12 1-2	8 25	1 The Gold coaſt in Africa, Malacca in the E. I. Cayenne in S. America.
2	13	16 25	2 Abyſſinia, Siam, Madras, Darien, Barbadoes, Tobago, &c.
3	13 1-2	23 50	3 Mecca, Bombay, Bengal, Canton, Mexico, Jamaica, Guadaloupe.
4	14	30 25	4 Egypt, Delhi, Canary iſles, Florida, Havanna.
5	14 1-2	36 28	5 Gibraltar, Jeruſalem, Iſpahan, Nankin, Georgia, and the Carolinas.
6	15	41 22	6 Liſbon, Madrid, Aſia Minor, Virginia, Maryland, Philadelphia.
7	15 1-2	45 29	7 Rome, Genoa, Conſtantinople, Caſpian Sea, New-York, New-England.
8	16	49 01	8 Paris, Vienna, Nova-Scotia, Newfoundland, Canada.
9	16 1-2	52 00	9 London, Flanders, Prague, Dreſden, Cracow, Tartary.
10	17	54 27	10 Dublin, Warſaw, Holland, Hanover, Labrador, New-South-Wales.
11	17 1-2	56 37	11 Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moſcow, capital of Ruſſia.
12	18	58 29	12 South part of Sweden, Toboliki, capital of Siberia.
13	18 1-2	59 58	13 Orkney Iſles, Stockholm, capital of Sweden.
14	19	61 18	14 Bergen in Norway, Peterſburg in Ruſſia.
15	19 1-2	62 25	15 Hudſon's Straits, North America.
16	20	63 22	16 South part of Weſt-Greenland, Siberia.
17	20 1-2	64 06	17 Drontheim in Norway.
18	21	64 49	18 Part of Finland in Ruſſia.
19	21 1-2	65 21	19 Archangel on the White Sea, Ruſſia.
20	22	65 47	20 Hecla in Iceland.
21	22 1-2	66 06	21 Northern parts of Ruſſia and Siberia.
22	23	66 20	22 New North-Wales in North-America.
23	23 1-2	66 28	23 Davis' Straits in ditto.
24	24	66 31	24 Samoieda.
25	1 month	67 21	25 South part of Lapland.
26	2 do.	69 48	26 Weſt-Greenland.
27	3 do.	73 37	27 Zembla Auſtralis.
28	4 do.	78 30	28 Zembla Borealis.
29	5 do.	84 05	29 Spitſbergen, or Eaſt-Greenland.
30	6 do.	90 0	30 Unknown.

Latitude.] The *latitude* of a place is its distance from the equator, reckoned in degrees, &c. north or south, on the meridian. The greatest latitude is that of the poles, which are 90 degrees distant from the equator. If the place be situated between the equator and the north pole, it is said to be in north latitude; if it lie between the equator and the south pole, it is in south latitude.

The elevation of the pole above the horizon is always equal to the latitude of the place; for to a person situated at the equator, both poles will rest in the horizon. If you travel one, two, or more degrees north, the north pole will rise one, two, or more degrees, and will keep pace with your distance from the equator.

Longitude.] Every place on the surface of the earth has its meridian. The *longitude* of a place is the distance of its meridian from some other fixed meridian, measured on the equator. Longitude is either east or west. All places east of the fixed or first meridian are in east longitude; all west, in west longitude. On the equator, a degree of longitude is equal to 60 geographical miles; and, of course, a minute on the equator is equal to a geographical mile. But as all the

meridians cut the equator at right angles, and approach nearer and nearer to each other, till they cross each other at the poles, it is obvious that the degrees of longitude decrease as you go from the equator to either pole; so that in the 60th degree of latitude, a degree of longitude is but 30 miles, or half as long as a degree on the equator; as is shown by the following table.

A TABLE.

Showing the number of geographical miles contained in a degree of longitude in each parallel of latitude from the equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a mile	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a mile.
0	60	0	23	55	23	46	41	68	69	21	50
1	59	99	24	54	81	47	40	92			
2	59	96				48	40	14	70	20	52
3	59	91	25	54	38	49	39	36	71	19	53
4	59	85	26	53	93				72	18	54
			27	53	46	55	38	57	73	17	54
5	59	77	28	52	97	51	37	76	74	16	53
6	59	67	29	52	47	52	36	94			
7	59	55				53	36	11	75	15	53
8	59	41	30	51	96	54	35	27	76	14	51
9	59	26	31	51	43				77	13	50
			32	50	88	55	34	41	78	12	47
10	59	09	33	50	32	56	33	55	79	11	45
11	58	89	34	49	74	57	32	68			
12	58	68				58	31	79	80	10	42
13	58	46	35	49	15	59	30	90	81	9	38
14	58	22	36	48	54				82	8	34
			37	47	92	60	30	00	83	7	31
15	57	95	38	47	28	61	29	09	84	6	27
16	57	67	39	46	62	62	28	17			
17	57	38	40	45	96	63	27	24	85	5	22
18	57	06	41	45	28	64	26	30	86	4	18
19	56	73	42	44	58				87	3	14
			43	43	88	65	25	35	88	2	09
20	56	39	44	43	16	66	24	40	89	1	05
21	56	01				67	23	44	90	0	00
22	55	63	45	42	42	68	22	47			

METHODS OF FINDING THE LATITUDES AND LONGITUDES OF PLACES FROM CELESTIAL OBSERVATIONS.

WHAT is meant by latitude and longitude has already been sufficiently explained; it remains that we show the methods used for finding both, by celestial observations.

I. *Of finding the latitude.*

As the latitude of a place is an arc of the meridian, intercepted between the zenith and the equinoctial, which is always equal to the height of the visible pole above the horizon, it follows, that if the greatest meridional altitude in the course of a day, or its complement, the zenith distance of any celestial body, whose place in the heavens is known, can be found, the latitude is easily discovered. Thus, if the heavenly body be in the equinoctial, the zenith distance will be equal to the latitude, which will be either north or south, according as the observer is situated either to the northward or southward of the object. But if the sun or star have either north or south declination, that is, if its apparent diurnal motion be either to the northward or southward of the equinoctial, the declination must either be subtracted from, or added to, the zenith distance, according as the zenith distance and declination are of the same or different denominations.

1. If the zenith distance and declination have the same name, their difference will be the latitude. And if the declination be greater than the zenith distance, the latitude will be of the same name with the declination; but if the declination be less than the zenith distance, the latitude will be of the contrary name. If they be equal, the latitude is 0; that is, the place is situated under the equinoctial.

2. If the declination and zenith distance be of contrary names, that is, one north and the other south, their sum will be the latitude, and always of the same name with the declination.

In most books of astronomy and navigation are tables of the declination of the sun, and some of the principal fixed stars: and the meridian altitude of the sun or stars may be found by a quadrant.

3. When the object appears in the zenith, the latitude is equal to the declination, and also of the same name.

There are several other methods of finding the latitude, but the above will be sufficient in this place, especially as it is generally used.

II. *Of finding the longitude.*

It has been already observed, that the difference of longitude between any two places might be determined by knowing the difference between the times when any remarkable appearance in the heavens is seen in those places. For since the sun and fixed stars appear to move round the earth, or, which is the same thing, the earth revolves about its axis in about 24 hours; it follows, that in every hour there passes over the meridian one 24th part of 360 degrees, or of the whole circumference of the equator, equal to 15 degrees, and a proportional part in a greater or less time.

The heavenly bodies afford frequent opportunities for making observations of this kind, by their appulses or approaches to, and passages by, one another; and these appulses when they happen, are seen at the same instant of absolute time in all parts of the earth where they are visible: Therefore, by knowing the relative times when such appearances are seen in two distant places, the difference of these times is known, and consequently the difference of longitude between those places.

Several Ephemerides or Almanacks are annually published, in which the times when eclipses of the sun, moon and Jupiter's satellites, the appulse of the moon to certain fixed stars, and other celestial appearances, are determined, with regard to some meridian. By the help of one of these books and a careful observation of these appearances, the longitude may be determined.

Eclipses of the moon, when they happen, afford one method of finding the difference of longitude. For as these eclipses are occasioned by an interposition of the earth between the sun and moon, and consequently the moon is immersed in the earth's shadow, the moment any part of the moon is deprived of the solar rays, it is visible to all those people who can see the moon, at the same instant of absolute time. Hence, by observing the beginning, middle, or end of an eclipse of the moon in any part of the world, noting the apparent times of the phenomena, and comparing them with the calculations of the same eclipse, adapted to some other meridian, the difference of time, and consequently the difference of longitude, between those two places will be known.

Suppose, for instance, the beginning of an eclipse of the moon happened at London fifty minutes after eleven in the evening, and five minutes and a half after seven in the evening at Cambridge near Boston, in New-England ; then will the difference of time be four hours, forty-four minutes and thirty seconds, equal to seventy-one degrees seven minutes and a half, the difference of longitude ; and because the eclipse happened earlier at Cambridge than at London, the difference of longitude will be west. Consequently, if the longitude be reckoned from the meridian of London, the longitude of Cambridge will be seventy-one degrees seven minutes and a half west.

The longitudes of places may also be obtained from observations of solar eclipses ; but these being incumbered with the consideration of parallaxes, are attended with much more difficulty in their application to that purpose than those of the moon ; but the times when they happen are ascertained with more precision.

But as eclipses of the sun and moon happen but seldom, another method is wanted ; the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites furnish one. They pass through the shadow of Jupiter so often, that there is scarcely a night without an eclipse of this kind. The beginning or immersion and end or emersion, are almost instantaneous, and are equally proper for determining the longitude. The eclipses of the first and second satellites are preferable to those of the others. Telescopes, proper for observing them, are common refractors, from 15 to 20 feet in length ; achromaticks with two object glasses, from five to ten feet ; reflectors of 18 inches, or two feet in focal length ; and achromaticks with three object glasses of 46 inches in focal length.

The passage of the moon, or the superior planets, over the meridian, affords another method of discovering the longitude ; for by having the time in an ephemeris, when the moon or any of the planets passes the meridian of some place, and finding by observation the time when the object passes the meridian of another place, the longitude will be determined ; for the difference of time converted into degrees, &c. will give the difference of longitude.

Another method of finding the longitude is by a time-keeper, clock, or watch, which always shows the true time at the meridian of some particular place ; for, by finding the time of the day at any other place, and comparing it with the time then shown by such a machine, the difference of longitude between those places will be determined. The construction of time keepers has been improved beyond the most sanguine expectation. The ingenious Mr. Harrison made one, which on trial was found to measure time with so much accuracy, that the commissioners of longitude gave him half of the reward that had been offered by the British government for the discovery of longitude, as the degree of approximation he had obtained came within the meaning of the parliamentary act ; and afterward, in consequence of his explaining the principles of his improvements, so as to enable others to make time keepers of equal value, they gave him the other half of the said reward. Messrs. Arnold, Kendal, Mudge, and other artists, have also made valuable improvements in time keepers, and produced some, which are thought to deserve, as they have received, very high commendation.

The appulses of the moon to certain fixed stars, and their occultations by its interposition, may also be employed as means for finding the longitude. For the moon finishing its revolution in the space of 27d. 7h. 43m. there are but few clear nights, when the moon does not pass over or so near some fixed star, that the time of the nearest approach, or the visible conjunction may be easily observed. And this, when compared with the time computed to the meridian of some place, will show the difference of longitude. The principle of this method may be further extended. For, if at any time the true distance of the moon from the sun, or a fixed star, be determined from an observation of their apparent distance, and the time of the observation be accurately ascertained, then, the time at a known meridian when their distance is the same being computed, the difference of the times at the known meridian and at that of the place where the observation is made, is known ; and consequently their difference of longitude.

THE GLOBES, AND THEIR USE.

A GLOBE is a round body, whose surface is every where equally remote from the centre. But by the *globes*, sometimes called *artificial globes*, is here meant two spherical bodies, whose convex surfaces are supposed to give a true representation of the earth and the apparent heavens. One of these is called the *terrestrial*, the other the *celestial* globe. On the convex surface of the terrestrial globe, all the parts of the earth and sea are delineated in their relative size, form and situation.

On the surface of the celestial globe, the images of the several constellations and the unformed stars are delineated ; and the relative magnitude and position, which the stars are observed to have in the heavens, are carefully preserved.

In order to render these globes more useful, they are fitted up with certain appurtenances, whereby a great variety of useful problems are solved in a very easy and expeditious manner.

The *brazen meridian* is that ring in which the globe hangs on its axis, represented by two wires passing through its poles. The circle is divided into four quarters of 90 degrees each ; in one semicircle the divisions begin at each pole, and end at 90 degrees of the equator, where they meet. In the other semicircles, the divisions begin at the equator, and proceed thence toward each pole, where they end at 90 degrees. The graduated side of this brazen circle serves as a meridian for any point on the surface of the earth, the globe being turned about till that point come under it.

The *hour circle* is a small circle of brass, divided into 24 hours, the quarters and half quarters. It is fixed on the brazen meridian, with its centre over the north pole ; to the axis is fixed an index, that points out the divisions of the hour circles as the globe is turned round its axis. Sometimes the hour circle, with its divisions, is described or marked about the north pole on the surface of the globe, and is made to pass under the index. In some of Adams's globes, the equator is used as an hour circle, over which is placed a semicircular wire, carrying two indices, one on the east side of the brazen meridian, and the other on the west.

The *horizon* is represented by the upper surface of the wooden circular frame, encompassing the globe about its middle. On this wooden frame is a kind of perpetual calendar, contained in several concentrick circles. The inner one is divided into four quarters of 90 degrees each ; the next circle is divided into the 12 months, with the days in each according to the new style ; the next contains the 12 equal signs of the zodiack or ecliptick, each being divided into 30 degrees ; the next the 12 months and days according to the old style ; and there is another circle containing the 32 points of the compass, with their halves and quarters. Although these circles are on most horizons, yet they are not always placed in the same order.

The *quadrant of altitude* is a thin slip of brass, one edge of which is graduated into ninety degrees and their quarters, equal to those of the meridian. To one end of this is fixed a brass nut and screw, by which it is put on and fastened to the meridian ; if it be fixed in the zenith, or pole of the horizon, then the graduated edge represents a vertical circle passing through any point of the horizon, to which it is directed.

Beside these, there are several circles, described on the surfaces of both globes ; as the *equator, ecliptick, circles of longitude and right ascension, the tropicks, polar circles, parallels of latitude and declination*, on the celestial globe ; and on the terrestrial, the *equator, ecliptick, tropicks, polar circles, parallels of latitude, hour circles* or *meridians*, to every 15 degrees ; and on some globes, the *spiral rhumbs* flowing from several centres, called *flies*.

In using the globes, keep the graduated side of the meridian towards you, unless the problem requires a different position. With respect to the terrestrial, we are to suppose ourselves situated at a point on its surface ; with respect to the celestial, at its centre. The motion of the former represents the real diurnal motion of the earth ; that of the latter, the apparent diurnal motion of the heavens.

The following PROBLEMS, as being most useful and entertaining, are selected from a great variety of others, which are easily solved with a *terrestrial globe*, fitted up with the aforesaid appurtenances.

I. *The latitude of a place being given, to rectify the globe for that place.*

Let it be required to rectify the globe for the latitude of Boston, 42 degrees 23 minutes north.

Elevate the north pole, till the horizon cut the brazen meridian in 42° 23′, and the globe is then rectified for the latitude of Boston. Bring Boston to the meridian, and you will find it in the zenith, or directly on the top of the globe. And so of any other place.

II. *To find the latitude and longitude of a place on the globe.*

Bring the given place under that half of the graduated brazen meridian where the degrees begin at the equator, and under the graduated side of it, then the degree of the meridian over it shows the latitude; and the degree of the equator, under the meridian, shows the longitude.

Thus Boston will be found to lie in about 42° 23′ north latitude, and 71° west longitude from Greenwich.

III. *To find any place on the globe whose latitude and longitude are given.*

Bring the given longitude, found on the equator, to the meridian, and under the given latitude, found on the meridian, is the place sought.

IV. *To find the distance and bearing of any two given places on the globe.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both places, the beginning or 0 degree being on one of them, and the degrees between them show their distance; these degrees, multiplied by 60, give the geographical miles, and, by 69½, give the distance in English miles nearly. Observe while the quadrant lies in this position, what rhumb of the nearest fly runs mostly parallel to the edge of the quadrant, and that rhumb shows nearly the bearing required.

V. *To find the sun's place in the ecliptick.*

Look the day of the month on the horizon, and, opposite to it, you will find the sign and degree the sun is in that day. Thus on the 25th of March, the sun's place is 4½ degrees in *Aries*. Then look for that sign and degree in the *ecliptick line* marked on the globe, and you will find the sun's place; there fix on a small black patch, so is it prepared for the solution of the following problems.

Note. The earth's place is always in the sign and degree opposite to the sun; thus, when the sun is 4½ degrees in Aries, the earth is 4½ degrees in Libra; and so of any other.

VI. *To find the sun's declination, that is, its distance from the equinoctial line, either northward or southward.*

Bring its place to the meridian; observe what degree of the meridian lies over it, and that is the declination. If the sun lie on the north side of the line, the declination is *north*, but if on the south side, the declination is *south*.

Thus on the 20th of April the sun has 11½ degrees of north declination, but on the 26th of October it has 12½ of south declination.

Note. The greatest declination can never be more, either north or south, than the distance of a tropick from the equator.

VII. *To find where the sun is vertical on any day.*

Bring the sun's place to the meridian, observe its declination, or hold a pen or wire over it, then turn the globe round, and all those countries which pass under the wire, will have the sun vertical, or nearly so, that day at noon. Thus on the 16th day of April, the inhabitants of the north part of *Terra Firma*, *Porto Bello*, *Philippine Isles*, southern parts of *India*, *Abyssinia*, *Ethiopia* and *Guinea*, have the sun over their heads that day at 12 o'clock.

Note. This appearance can only happen to those who live in the *torrid zone.*

VIII. *To find at what place the sun is vertical at any hour.*

Bring the place, where you are, (suppose Boston) to the meridian; set the index to the given hour; then turn the globe till the index point to the upper 12, or *noon*, look under the degree of declination for that day, and you find the place to which the sun is vertical.

Thus on the first day of May, at half past 8 o'clock, A. M. I find the sun is then vertical at Cape Verd, the western point of Africa.

Note. If it be morning, the globe must be turned from east to west; if in the afternoon, it must be turned from west to east.

IX. *To find, at any hour of the day, what o'clock it is at any place.*

Bring the place, where you are, to the brass meridian; set the index to the hour, turn the globe till the place you are looking for come under the meridian, and the index will point out the time required.

Thus when it is 10 o'clock in the morning, at Boston, it is 24 minutes past 12 at Olinda in Brazil, and 8 at Mexico in New-Spain; the former being at 35 degrees west longitude, and the latter at 100 degrees west longitude.

Note. By this problem you may likewise see at one view, in distant countries, where the inhabitants are *rising*, where *breakfasting*, *dining*, *drinking tea*, where going to *assemblies*, and where to *bed.*

X. *To find at what hour the sun rises and sets any day in the year at a place, the latitude of which does not exceed* 66½ *degrees; and also on what point of the compass it rises and sets.*

Rectify the globe for the latitude of the place; bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the index to 12; then turn the sun's place to the eastern edge of the horizon, and the index will point out the hour of rising; if you bring it to the western edge of the horizon, the index will show the hour of setting.

Thus on the 10th day of April, the sun rises at half an hour after five o'clock at Boston, and sets half an hour before seven.

Note. In summer the sun rises and sets a little to the *northward* of the east and west points; and in winter a little to the *southward* of

them. If, therefore, when the sun's place is brought to the eastern and western edges of the horizon, you look on the horizon directly against the little patch, you will see the point of the compass on which the sun rises and sets that day.

XI. *To find the length of the day and night, at any time of the year, and at any place in a latitude not exceeding* 66½ *degrees.*

Double the time of the sun's rising that day, and it gives the length of the night; double the time of its setting, and it gives the length of the day.

Thus on the 3d day of May, the sun rises at Boston about 5 o'clock and sets about seven; therefore the day is about 14 hours long, and the night 10.

XII. *To find the length of the longest and shortest day, at a given place.*

Rectify the globe for that place; if its latitude be north, bring the beginning of Cancer to the meridian; set the index to 12, then bring the same degree of Cancer to the east part of the horizon, and the index will show the time of the *sun's* rising, which doubled gives the length of the shortest night.

If the same degree be brought to the western side, the index will show the time of the sun's setting, which doubled will give the length of the longest day.

If we bring the beginning of Capricorn to the meridian, and proceed in all respects as before, we shall have the length of the longest night and shortest day.

Thus in the great Mogul's dominions, the longest day is 14 hours, and the shortest night 10 hours. The shortest day is 10 hours, and the longest night 14 hours.

At Petersburg, the capital of Russia, the longest day is about 19½ hours, and the shortest night 4½ hours. The shortest day 4½ hours, and the longest night 19½ hours.

Note. In all places near the *equator*, the sun rises and sets at 6 o'clock, through the year. Thence to the *polar circles*, the days increase as the latitude increases; so that at those circles the longest day is 24 hours, and the longest night the same. From the *polar circles* to the *poles*, the days continue to lengthen into weeks and months; so that at the pole, the sun shines for six months together in *summer*, and is below the horizon six months in *winter*. *Note* also, that when it is *summer* with the *northern* inhabitants, it is *winter* with the *southern*, and the contrary; and every part of the world partakes of an equal share of light and darkness.

XIII. *To find those inhabitants to whom the sun is this moment rising, setting, in the meridian and in the opposite.*

Find the sun's place in the ecliptick and raise the pole as much above the horizon as the sun, that day, declines from the equator; then bring the place, where the sun is vertical at that hour, to the brass meridian; so will it then be in the *zenith*. Now see what countries lie in the western edge of the horizon; for to them the sun is *rising*; to those in the eastern side it is *setting*; to those under the upper

part of the meridian the time is *noon ;* and to those under the lower part of it, it is *midnight.*

Thus at Charlestown (Massachusetts) on the 10th of April at four o'clock in the morning,

The sun is about rising to	Brasil, South-America.
Setting to	New-Guinea, the Japan Isles, and Kamtschatka.
In the meridian, or it is noon in	Persia, Austria, and Nova-Zembla.
In the opposite meridian, or it is midnight in	The Bay of Good Hope, in the vicinity of King George's Sound.

XIV. *To find the beginning and end of twilight.*

The *twilight* is that faint light which opens the morning by little and little in the east, before the sun rises ; and gradually vanishes in the west, after sunset. It arises from the sun's illuminating the upper part of the atmosphere, and begins when it approaches within about 18 degrees of the eastern horizon, and ends when it has descended about 18 degrees below the western ; when dark night commences, and continues till another day dawn.

To find the *beginning of twilight :* rectify the globe ; bring the sun's place in the ecliptick to the meridian, and set the index to 12 at noon. Turn the degree of the ecliptick, which is opposite to the sun's place, till it be elevated 18 degrees in the quadrant of altitude above the horizon on the west, so will the index point to the time when twilight begins.

To find when it *ends :* bring the same degree of the ecliptick to 18 degrees of the quadrant on the east side, and the index will point to the time when twilight ends.

Thus on the 10th of April, at Boston, twilight begins at 41 minutes after three in the morning, and ends 19 minutes after eight in the evening. In London they have no total night, but a constant twilight while the sun is beneath the horizon, for two months, from the 20th of May to the 20th of July.

Under the north pole, the twilight ceases when the sun's declination is greater than 18 degrees south, which is from the 13th of November to the 29th of January ; so that, notwithstanding the sun is absent from that part of the world for half a year together, yet total darkness does not continue above 11 weeks ; and beside, the moon is above the horizon, at the poles, for a whole fortnight of every month through the year.

XV. *To measure the distance from one place to another.*

Only take their distance with a pair of dividers, and apply it to the equinoctial, that will give the number of degrees between them, which, being multiplied by 60, (the number of geographical miles in one degree) gives the exact distance sought : or, extend the quadrant of altitude from one place to another, that will show the number of degrees in like manner, which may be reduced to miles as before.

Thus the distance from London to Madrid is 11½ degrees. From Paris to Constantinople 19½ degrees. From Bristol in England to Boston 45 degrees, which multiplied by 69½, (the number of English miles in a degree) gives 3,127½ miles.

Note. No place can be further from another than 180 degrees, that being half the circumference of the globe, and consequently the greatest distance.

XVI. *To find all those countries in which an eclipse of the moon is visible.*

Find the place to which the sun is vertical at the time of the eclipse, by Problem VII. bring the antipodes, or country opposite to the place where the sun is vertical at the time of the eclipse, to the zenith or top of the globe, and then the eclipse will be visible in all places above the horizon at that time.

XVII. *To calculate the circumference of the earth, that is, to find the number of miles round it, on supposition of its being a globe.*

A line going round the earth, being supposed to be a circle, is divided, like every other circle, into 360 degrees; and each degree into 60 minutes. Therefore, if the length of a degree be multiplied by 360, the product is the circumference. Thus, if a degree be 69½ English miles, the circumference is 25,020 miles; if a degree be 69·2 miles the circumference is 24,912.

Note. Sixty geographical miles make a degree, therefore the circumference is 21,600 geographical miles.

XVIII. *To calculate the diameter of the earth, that is, to find the number of miles through it, on supposition of its being a globe.*

Multiply the circumference by 113, and divide the product by 355, the quotient will be the diameter. Thus, if the circumference be 24,912 miles, the diameter is 7928.

Note. From these dimensions of the earth we may infer,

1st. That if a hole were made through it, and a mill stone should fall in this hole at the rate of one mile a minute, it would be more than 2¾ days descending to the centre.

2d. If a man desirous of travelling round the earth, should go 20 miles a day, he would be nearly 3½ years in completing the journey.

3d. If a bird should fly round the earth in two days, the flight would exceed the rate of 525 miles an hour.

XIX. *To find the superficial content of the earth, it being supposed to be a globe.*

Multiply the circumference by the diameter. Thus if the circumference be 24,912 miles, and the diameter 7928, the superficial content is 197,502,336 square miles.

XX. *To find the solid content of the earth, it being supposed to be a globe.*

Multiply the surface by *one sixth* of the diameter, and it will give the solidity. Thus, the surface and diameter being as above, the solidity is 260,966,419,968 solid miles.

After the same manner we may find the surface and solidity not only of the earth, but also of the whole body of the atmosphere surrounding it, provided it be always and every where of the same height. For, having found its perpendicular height by means of a barometer, or the refraction of the sun's light, double the said height and add the same to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the sum as a new diameter, or the diameter of the earth and atmosphere, by its proper circumference, the product is the upper surface of the atmosphere; multiply this surface by one sixth of the diameter, from the product subtract the solidity of the earth, and there will remain that of the atmosphere.

PROBLEMS, SOLVED ON THE CELESTIAL GLOBE.

THE equator, ecliptick, tropicks, polar circles, horizon and brazen meridian are exactly alike on both globes. Both also are rectified in the same manner.

N. B. The sun's place for any day of the year stands directly against that day on the horizon of the celestial globe, as it does on that of the terrestrial.

The *latitude* and *longitude* of the celestial bodies are reckoned in a very different manner from the latitude and longitude of places on the earth; for all terrestrial latitudes are reckoned from the equator and longitudes from the meridian of some remarkable place, as of London by the British, and of Paris by the French. But the astronomers of all nations agree in reckoning the latitudes of the moon, planets, comets and fixed stars, from the ecliptick; and their longitudes, and that of the sun, from the equinoctial colure and from that semicircle of it which cuts the ecliptick at the beginning of Aries; and thence eastward, quite round to the same semicircle again. Consequently those stars, which lie between the equinoctial and the northern half of the ecliptick, have north declination, but south latitude; those which lie between the equinoctial and the southern half of the ecliptick have south declination, but north latitude; and all those which lie between the tropicks and poles have their declinations and latitudes of the same denomination.

PROB. I. *To find the right ascension and declination of the sun, or any fixed star.*

Bring the sun's place in the ecliptick to the brazen meridian; then that degree in the equinoctial which is cut by the meridian is the sun's *right ascension*; and that degree of the meridian which is over the sun's place is its *declination*. Bring any fixed star to the meridian, and its right ascension will be cut by the meridian in the equinoctial; and the degree of the meridian that stands over it is its declination. So that right ascension and declination on the celestial globe are found in the same manner as longitude and latitude on the terrestrial.

II. *To find the latitude and longitude of a star.*

If the given star be on the north side of the ecliptick, place the 90th degree of the quadrant of altitude on the north pole of the ecliptick, where the twelve semicircles meet, which divide the ecliptick into the twelve signs; but if the star be on the south side of the ecliptick, place the 90th degree of the quadrant on the south pole of the ecliptick: keeping the 90th degree of the quadrant on the proper pole, turn the quadrant about, until its graduated edge cut the star; then the number of degrees on the quadrant, between the ecliptick and the star, is its latitude; and the degrees of the ecliptick cut by the quadrant, is the star's longitude, reckoned according to the sign in which the quadrant then is.

III. *To represent the face of the starry firmament, as seen from any given place of the earth, at any hour of the night.*

Rectify the celestial globe for the given latitude, the zenith, and sun's place, in every respect, as taught by the problem for the terrestrial; and turn it about until the index point to the given hour; then the upper hemisphere of the globe will represent the visible half of the heavens for that time: all the stars upon the globe being then in such situations, as exactly correspond to those in the heavens. And if the globe be placed duly north and south, by means of a compass, every star on the globe will point toward the like star in the heavens: by which means the constellations and remarkable stars may be easily known. All those stars which are in the eastern side of the horizon, are then rising in the eastern part of the heavens; all in the western are setting in the western part; and all those under the upper part of the brazen meridian, between the south point of the horizon and the north pole, are at their greatest altitude, if the latitude of the place be north; but if the latitude be south, those stars which lie under the upper part of the meridian, between the north point of the horizon and the south pole, are at their greatest altitude.

IV. *The latitude of the place and day of the month being given: to find the time when any known star will rise, be on the meridian, or set.*

Having rectified the globe, turn it about until the given star come to the eastern side of the horizon, and the index will show the time of the star's rising; then turn the globe westward, and when the star comes to the brazen meridian, the index will show the time of the star's coming to the meridian of the place; lastly, turn on until the star come to the western side of the horizon, and the index will show the time of the star's setting.

N. B. In northern latitudes those stars which are less distant from the north pole than the quantity of its elevation above the north point of the horizon never set; and those which are less distant from the south pole than the number of degrees by which it is depressed below the horizon, never rise: and *vice versa* in southern latitudes.

V. *To find at what time of the year a given star will be on the meridian at a given hour of the night.*

Bring the given star to the brass meridian, and set the index to the given hour; then turn the globe until the index point to XII at

noon, and the meridian will then cut the sun's place, answering to the day of the year sought: which day may be easily found against the like place of the sun among the signs on the wooden horizon.

MAPS, AND THEIR USE.

A MAP is the representation of some part of the earth's surface, delineated on a plane according to the laws of projection; for as the earth is of a globular form, no part of its spherical surface can be accurately exhibited on a plane.

Maps are either general or particular: *general maps* are such as give us a view of an entire hemisphere, or half of the globe, and are projected on the plane of some great circle, which terminates the projected hemisphere, and divides it from the other half of the globe, as the meridian, equator, or the horizon of some place; and from this circle the projection is said to be *meridional*, *equatorial*, or *horizontal*.

Particular maps are such as exhibit a part less than a hemisphere; such as maps of Europe, Asia, Africa, North-America and South-America; or of particular kingdoms, provinces, countries, or less districts.

There are two methods of projecting the circles in general maps, viz. *stereographick* and *orthographick*. In order to form an adequate idea of the construction of maps, we may imagine the globe, on which the circles are delineated, to be of thin glass, and that half of it is viewed at the same time. In taking this view, the eye may be conceived to be placed at different distances from the hemisphere to be projected. If the eye be concieved to be placed in some point of the surface of the sphere to view the concave of the opposite hemisphere, it is called the *stereographick projection*; if the eye be supposed to be placed at an infinite distance, it is called the *orthographick projection*.

In the stereographick projection, the parts about the middle are contracted, being much less than those nearer the circumference.

All the maps in this treatise, and indeed those in almost all others, are laid down according to the laws of stereographick projection.

Maps differ from the globe in the same manner as a picture does from a statue. The globe truly represents the earth; but a map not more than a plane surface represents one that is spherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet by means of several of them, each containing about 10 or 20 degrees of latitude, the representation will not fall very much short of the globe in exactness; because such maps, if joined together, would form a convex surface nearly as round as the globe itself.

Cardinal Points.] The *north* is considered as the upper part of the map; the *south* is at the bottom, opposite to the north; the *east* is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the *west* on the left hand, opposite to the east. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from side to side, *parallels of latitude*. The outmost of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude or longitude, by means of which, and the *scale of miles*, which is commonly placed in a corner of the map, the situations,

distances, &c. of places may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus to find the distance of two places, suppose Philadelphia and Boston, by the map, we have only to measure the space between them with the compasses, or a piece of thread, and to apply this distance to the scale of miles, which shows that Boston is 286 miles distant in a straight line from Philadelphia. If the places lie directly north or south, east or west, from one another, we have only to observe the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and by reducing these to miles, we obtain the distance without measuring. Rivers are described in maps by black lines, and are wider toward the mouth than toward the head or spring. Mountains are sketched on maps as on a picture. Forests and woods are represented by a kind of shrub; bogs and morasses, by shades; sands and shallows are described by small dots; and roads usually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expressed by figures representing fathoms.

When any part of the heavens or earth is said to be on the right or left, we are to understand the expression differently according to the profession of the person who makes use of it; because according to that, his face is supposed to be turned toward a certain quarter. A geographer is supposed to stand with his face to the north, because the northern part of the world is best known. An astronomer looks toward the south, to observe the celestial bodies as they come to the meridian. The ancient augurs, in observing the flight of birds, looked toward the east; while the poets look westward toward the *Fortunate Isles*. In books of geography, therefore, by the right hand we must undersand the east; in those of astronomy, the west; in such as relate to augury, the south; and in the writings of poets, the north.

GEOGRAPHICAL THEOREMS, OR PROPOSITIONS.

THESE propositions, which are deducible from the nature of the foregoing work, the learner will find to be so many *real truths*, if he properly applies and contemplates them upon the globe.

I. Places lying under the equator have no latitude; because the reckoning of latitude begins at the equator.

II. Under the *poles* of the world the latitude is greatest, or just 90 degrees.

III. In going from the *equator* toward the *poles* the latitude increases; but in going toward the *equator*, the latitude decreases.

IV. The *latitude* of any place is equal to the height of the pole in degrees above the horizon.

V. Places lying under that meridian, which is accounted the first, have *no longitude*; because the reckoning of longitude begins at that meridian.

VI. Those places have the greatest longitude which lie under the meridian, opposite to that where longitude begins.

VII. The longitude of any place cannot be greater than 180 degrees eastward or westward; because that is the meridian opposite to that whence longitude is reckoned.

VIII. No two places can be distant from one another above 180 degrees; because 180 degrees is half the circumference of a great circle of the globe.

IX. All the inhabitants of the earth enjoy the *sun's light* an equal length of time, and are equally long without it.

X. Under the *equinoctial*, the days and nights are always equal to 12 hours; but not exactly so in any other place.

XI. In all places between the equator and the poles, the days and nights are never equal but at the time of the equinoxes, in March and September.

XII. The difference between the lengths of the days and nights in any place, on either *side* of the *equator*, is greater, in proportion as the latitude of the place is greater.

XIII. In places exactly under the *polar circles*, the sun appears, when at the *summer tropick*, one whole day without setting; and disappears one whole day when in the *winter tropick*: at other times it daily rises and sets as elsewhere.

XIV. At all places in the *frigid zones*, the sun appears every year without setting for a certain number of days; and disappears for about the same space of time. And the nearer to or further from the pole those places are, the longer or shorter is its appearance and absence.

XV. To all places under the same semicircle of the meridian, whether on the north or south side of the equator, it is *noon* or *midnight*, or any other hour of the day or night, at the same time precisely.

XVI. Places lying eastward of any other place have their *morning*, *noon* and *evening* hours earlier than at that place, by one hour for every 15 degrees it lies eastward of it.

XVII. Places lying westward of any other place have their *morning*, *noon*, and *evening* hours later than at that place, by one hour for every 15 degrees it lies westward of it.

XVIII. A person in going *eastward* quite round the globe will gain one day in his reckoning of time with respect to the account kept at the place whence he departed; but if his circuit be made *westward*, he will lose one day with respect to the account kept at that place.

XIX. Two persons, setting out at the same time from a place, to make the circuit of the globe, one going *eastward* the other *westward*, will, on their return, differ in their account of time by two entire days.

XX. To all places within the torrid zone, the sun is *vertical*, i. e. passes over the heads of the inhabitants, *twice* a year. To those under the *tropicks*, once: but it is never vertical to those in the *temperate* or *frigid zones*.

XXI. People who live to the north of the torrid zone see the sun due *south* at noon; and those who live to the south of the torrid zone see the sun due *north* at noon.

XXII. Those who see the sun toward the *north*, have their shadows projected *southward*; but those who see the sun toward the *south*, have their shadows projected *northward*.

XXIII. The nearer the sun is to the zenith of any person, the shorter is the shadow at noon; but the further from the *zenith* at noon the longer is the shadow; the shadow is always opposite to the sun; and those who have the sun in their zenith, i. e. directly over their heads, are said to have no [length of] shadow.

XXIV. In all places situated in a *parallel sphere*, i. e. at or very near the *poles*, the sun's daily motion is *parallel*, or nearly so, to the respective horizons of such places.

XXV. In every place situated in a *right sphere*, i. e. at or near the equator, the sun's daily motion is *perpendicular*, or nearly so, to the horizon of such places.

XXVI. In all places situated in an *oblique sphere*, i. e. lying between the equator and the poles, the circle of the sun's daily motion is always oblique to the horizon of such place, or cuts it at unequal angles.

XXVII. On the days of the *equinoxes* only, that is about the 20th of March and 23d of September, the sun rises exactly in the *east* point of the horizon, and sets in the *west* point, to every place on the earth.

XXVIII. To places in *north latitude*, the sun rises toward the *north* of *east* and sets toward the *north* of *west*, from the *vernal* to the *autumnal* equinox; and rises toward the *south* of *east*, and sets toward the *south* of *west*, from the time of the *autumnal equinox* to that of the *vernal*.

Lastly. In all places of the torrid zone, the morning and evening twilight is least; in the two frigid zones it is greatest; and in the temperate zones the twilight is a medium between those extremes.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS CONCERNING HEAT AND COLD.*

THAT the *presence of the sun* is the principal source of heat, as well as of light, and its *absence* of cold, is too obvious ever to have been doubted.

The next source of heat is the *condensation of vapour*. It is well known that vapour contains a quantity of the matter of heat which produces no other effect but that of making it assume an aerial expanded state, until the vapour is condensed into a liquid; but during this condensation a quantity of sensible heat is set loose, which warms the surrounding atmosphere. This condensation is frequently caused by the attraction of an electrical cloud, and hence the sultriness we frequently experience before rain.

As the earth is the chief source of heat in the atmosphere that surrounds it, *distance from the earth* is a source of cold; or, in other words, the greatest cold must prevail in the highest regions of the atmosphere, and so much the greater, as clear unclouded air seems to receive no heat whatsoever from the rays of the sun, whether direct or

* Extracted from Kirwan's ingenious work entitled "An Estimate of the Temperature of different Latitudes."

reflected. Thus if the focus of the most powerful burning glass be directed on mere air, it does not produce the smallest degree of heat; and the reason is, because the air being transparent affords a free passage to the rays of light, and resistance to their motion is one requisite in order to their production of heat.

Hence the highest mountains, even under the equator, are, during the whole year, covered with snow. Mr. Bouguer found the cold of Pinchinca, one of the Cordeliers, immediately under the line, to extend from seven to nine degrees under the freezing point, every morning before sun rise; and hence at a certain height, which varies in almost every latitude, it constantly freezes at night in every season, though in warm climates it thaw somewhat the next day. This height he calls the *lower term of congelation:* between the tropicks he places it at the height of 15,577 feet.

At still greater heights it never freezes, not because the cold decreases, but because vapours do not ascend so high; this height Mr. Bouguer calls the *upper term of congelation*, and under the equator he fixes it at the height of 28,000 feet, at most. Under the equator, there being very little variety in the weather, the height of both terms is nearly constant; under other latitudes this height is variable, both in summer and winter, according to the degree of heat which prevails on the surface of the earth.

The next general source of cold is *evaporation:* for the attraction of the particles of liquids decreases as their points of contact diminish, and thereby their capacity for receiving the matter of heat (which is the same as that of light) increases; by this increased capacity, the matter of heat or fire contained in the neighbouring bodies, which, like all other fluids, flows where it finds least resistance, is determined to flow toward the vapour; and consequently those bodies are cooled though the vapour be not heated; because the re-action of its particles is barely equal to that which it had before its capacity was increased.*

With respect to evaporation, we may remark,

1. That in our climates, it is about four times as great from the vernal to the autumnal equinox, as from the autumnal to the vernal.

2. The degree of cold produced by evaporation is much greater when the air is warmer than the evaporating surface, than that produced when the evaporating surface is the warmer of the two. Hence warm winds, as the Sirocco, Harmatan, &c. are more desiccative than cold winds.

3. That it is greatly increased by a current of air or wind flowing over the evaporating surface, not only because the evaporating surface is thereby increased, but also because unsatured air is constantly brought into contact with it. Hence it has been remarked that calm days are the hottest.

4. That tracts of land covered with trees or vegetables emit more vapour than the same space covered with water, as Dr. Hales has observed. Mr. Williams found this quantity to amount to one third more.

* Heat is observed to diminish in ascending into the atmosphere nearly in an arithmetical progression.

Lastly, we may observe that the heat and cold of different countries are transmitted from one to the other by the medium of winds. How the air of a cold country is determined to flow toward a warmer is easily understood ; but by what means warm air is determined to flow toward cold countries is somewhat difficult to explain. I shall here mention two causes that occur to me, wishing for a fuller explanation from others.

1st. If from any tract in the upper regions of the amosphere, two currents of air flow in opposite directions, as sometimes happens, the inferior air, being less compressed, will become specifically lighter ; and currents of air in opposite directions to the upper currents will take place.

2dly. I conceive that when easterly and westerly winds meet with unequal force, one of them may be reflected northward.

From what has been already said, it follows, that some situations are better fitted to receive or communicate heat than others ; thus high and mountainous situations, being nearer to the source of cold, must be colder than lower situations ; and countries covered with woods, as they prevent the access of the sun's rays to the earth, or to the heaps of snow which they may conceal, and present more numerous evaporating surfaces, must be colder than open countries, though situated in the same latitude ; and since all tracts of land present infinite varieties of situation, uniform results cannot here be expected.

With respect to the annual temperature, we may remark,

1. That within 10 degrees of the poles the temperatures differ very little : neither do they differ much within 10 degrees of the equator.

2. The temperatures of different years differ very little near the equator, but they differ more and more, as the latitudes approach the poles.

3. It scarcely ever freezes in latitudes under 35°, unless in very elevated situations, and it scarce ever hails in latitudes higher than 60°.

4. Between latitudes 35° and 60°, in places adjacent to the sea, it generally thaws when the sun's altitude is 40°, and seldom begins to freeze, until the sun's meridian altitude is below 40°.

Hence we may observe,

1. That the month of January is the coldest in every latitude.

2. That July is the warmest month in all latitudes above 48° ; but in lower latitudes, August is generally the warmest.

3. That December and January, and also June and July, differ but little. In latitudes above 30°, the months of August, September, October and November, differ more from each other, than those of February, March, April and May. In latitudes under 30°, the difference is not so great. The temperature of April approaches more, every where, to the annual temperature, than that of any other month ; whence we may infer, that the effects of natural causes, that operate gradually over a large extent, do not arrive at their *maximum*, until the activity of the causes begins to diminish; this appears also in the operation of the moon on seas, which produces tides ; but after these effects have arrived at their *maximum*, the decrements are more rapid

than the increments originally were, during the progress to that *maximum*.

4. That the differences between the hottest and coldest months, within 20° of the equator, are inconsiderable, except in some peculiar situations; but that they increase in proportion as we recede from the equator.

5. That in the highest latitudes we often meet with a heat of 75 or 80 degrees; and particularly in latitudes 59 and 60, the heat of July is frequently greater than in latitude 51°.

6. That every habitable latitude enjoys a heat of 60 degrees at least, for two months; which heat seems necessary for the growth and maturity of corn. The quickness of vegetation, in the higher latitudes, proceeds from the duration of the sun above the horizon. Rain is little wanted, as the earth is sufficiently moistened by the liquefaction of the snow, that covers it during the winter; in all this we cannot sufficiently admire the wise disposition of Providence

7. It is owing to the same provident hand, that the globe of the earth is intersected with seas and mountains, in a manner that on its first appearance seems altogether irregular and fortuitous; presenting to the eye of ignorance the view of an immense ruin; but when the effects of these seeming irregularities, on the face of the globe, are carefully inspected, they are found most beneficial and even necessary to the welfare of its inhabitants; for to say nothing of the advantage of trade and commerce, which could not exist without these seas; it is by their vicinity that the cold of the highest latitudes is moderated and the heat also of the lower. It is by want of seas that the interior parts of Asia, as Siberia and Great Tartary, as well as those of Africa, are rendered almost uninhabitable; a circumstance which furnishes a strong predjudice against the opinion of those, who think these countries were the original habitations of man. In the same manner, mountains are necessary; not only as the reservoirs of rivers, but as a defence against the violence of heat in the warm latitudes; without the Alps, Pyrennees, Appennine, the mountains of Dauphine and Auvergne, &c. Italy, Spain and France would be deprived of the mild temperature they at present enjoy. Without the Balgate Hills or Indian Appennine, India would have been a desert. Hence Jamaica, St. Domingo, Sumatra, and most other intertropical islands, are furnished with mountains, from which the breezes proceed that refresh them.

A view of the annual TEMPERATURE of different places, according to the order of their LATITUDES, beginning with the greatest.

	N. Lat. deg.	m.	Longitude. deg.	m.		Mean annual heat.
Wadso in Lapland	70	5				36°
Abo	60	27	22	18	E.	40
Petersburg	59	56	30	24	E.	38·8
Upsal	59	51	17	47	E.	41·88
Stockholm	59	20	18		E.	42·39
Solyskamski	59		54		E.	36·2

	N. Lat. deg. m.	Longitude. deg. m.	Mean annual heat.
Edinburgh	55 57	3 W.	47·7
Francker	53	5 42 E.	52·6
Berlin	52 32	13 31 E.	49
Lyndon, in Rutland	52 30	0 3 W.	48·3
Leyden	52 10	4 32 E.	52·25
London	51 31		51·9
Dunkirk	51 2	2 7 E.	54·9
Manheim	49 27	9 2 E.	51·5
Rouen	49 26	1 W.	51
Ratisbon	48 56	12 5 E.	49·35
Paris	48 50	2 25 E.	52
Troyes, in Champaigne	48 18	4 10 E.	53·17
Vienna	48 12	16 22 E.	51·53
Dijon	47 19	4 57 E.	52·8
Nantes	47 13	1 28 E.	55·53
Poitiers	46 39	0 30 E.	53·8
Lausanne	46 31	6 50 E.	48·87
Padua	45 23	12 E.	52·2
Rhodez, in Guienne	45 21	2 39 E.	52·9
Bourdeaux	44 50	0 36 W.	57·6
Montpelier	43 36	3 73 E.	60·87
Marseilles	43 19	5 27 E.	61·8
Mont Louis, in Rousillon	42 3	2 40 E.	44·5
Cambridge, in New-England	42 23	71 7 W.	50·3
Philadelphia	39 56	75 9 W.	52·5
Pekin	39 54	116 29 W.	55·5
Algiers	36 49	2 17 E.	72
Grand Cairo	30	31 23 E.	73
Canton	23	133 E.	751·4
Trivoli, in St. Domingo	19		74
Spanishtown, in Jamaica	18 15	76 38 W.	81
Manilla	14 36	120 58 E.	78·4
Fort St. George	13	87 E.	81·3
Pondicherry	12	67 E.	88
	South Lat.		
Falkland Islands	51	66 W.	47·4
Quito	0 13	77 50 W.	62

WINDS.

AIR is a fine invisible fluid, surrounding the earth, and extending some miles above its surface; and that collection of it, together with the bodies it contains, circumscribing the earth, is called the *atmosphere*.

Few natural bodies have been the subject of more experiments than the air; and from these it appears, that it is both heavy and elastick. By its gravity it is capable of supporting all lighter bodies, as, smoke, vapours, odours, &c. And by its elasticity, a small volume of air is

capable of expanding itself in such a manner as to fill a very large space, and also of being compressed into a much smaller compass. Cold has the property of compressing air, and heat of expanding it. But as soon as the cause of expansion or compression is removed, it will return to its natural state. Hence, if an alteration be made in any part of the atmosphere, either by heat, or cold, the neighbouring parts will be put in commotion by the effort which the air always makes to recover its former state.

Wind is nothing more than a stream or current of air, capable of very different degrees of velocity, and generally blowing from one point of the horizon to its opposite. The horizon, like all other circles, is divided into 360 degrees ; but as these divisions are too minute for common use, it is also divided into 32 equal parts, called *rhumbs*, or *points of the compass*. Winds are denominated east, west, north, south, &c. according to the points of the compass on which they blow ; and, with respect to their direction, are distributed into three classes, viz. general, periodical, and variable.

General winds are such as blow always nearly in the same direction. They are found to prevail in the Atlantick and Pacifick oceans between the latitudes of about 28 degrees north and south ; blowing generally at the equator from the east, on the north side of it between the north and east, and more northerly the nearer the northern limit ; and on the south side, between the south and east, and more southerly the nearer the southern limit, and are also called *tropical* or *general trade winds*.

Winds mostly originate in variations of the temperature of the atmosphere. An increase of heat in any part rarifies the air, and, as the resistance is least above, produces an ascending current, which diffuses itself at some greater altitude where the density is less, and at the same time the ambient colder air rushes to the rarified part to restore the equilibrium, and thus winds blow toward it on every side. On the contrary, cold condenses the air ; and a partial condensation produces winds blowing in every direction from the condensed part.

The superior degree of heat, near the equator, produced by the action of the sun, in connection with the earth's rotation on its axis, may be considered as the cause of the general winds. For, in consequence of greater heat, the air becomes more rarified, and currents flow thither from the northern and southern regions, that is, a north wind is produced on the north side of the equator, and a south wind on the south side. And, since the velocity of the diurnal motion is greater at the equator than in any parallel of latitude, and since the air, having this motion in common with the earth, when at rest with respect to the earth is proportionally swifter at the equator ; it follows, that a current moving from the north or south toward the equator, having less velocity toward the east than the equatorial region, will have a relative motion toward the west, that is, it will become an easterly wind, blowing between north and east on the north side of the equator, and between south and east on the south side.

Periodical winds are such as blow nearly in certain directions during certain periods of time. The *monsoons* or *shifting trade winds*, and

the *land and sea breezes*, are of this kind. The monsoons blow six months in one direction, and then six months in the opposite, the changes happening about the times of the equinoxes. These winds chiefly prevail in some parts of the Indian Ocean. The land and sea breezes are winds, which blow from the land in the night, and from the sea in the day time, changing their direction every 12 hours. They obtain in some degree on the coast of every country, but are most remarkable between the tropicks. At the islands between the tropicks, the sea breeze begins about nine o'clock in the morning, and continues till about nine in the evening ; a land breeze then succeeds and continues till about nine the next morning.

The periodical winds arise from the difference in the temperature of the air over land, and of that over water, occasioned by their not acquiring or losing equal degrees of heat in a given time. The Indian Ocean is bounded on the east and north by part of Africa, Arabia, Persia and India, the shores of which are situated within the limits of the trade winds ; and the sun, after the vernal equinox, renders the air above these extensive tracts of land hotter than that above the adjacent sea, and thus produces a wind, which soon begins to blow toward the land. This direction of the wind continues from April to October, when the sun having passed to the south side of the equator, the air over the land toward the north becomes colder than that over the water, the direction of the wind is inverted, and it blows on the opposite point the remaining six months of the year. And with respect to the land and sea breezes, the effect of the sun in heating the air over the land in the day time being greater than the heat it produces in the air over the adjacent seas, sea breezes arise ; and in the night, the air, which before was hottest, becomes and continues coldest, and a land breeze is the consequence.

Variable winds are those which are subject to no regularity of duration or change. All the winds in latitudes higher than 40° are of this kind.

Variable, as well as periodical, winds are principally owing, without doubt, to the different temperatures of air incumbent on land and water.

Various circumstances operate in producing disturbances and variations in the general and periodical winds. Different kinds of soil diversify the temperature of the incumbent air. Sometimes chains of mountains form a kind of eddy. In extensive seas and oceans, the general trade winds are subject to few variations, and to fewer in the Pacifick than in the Atlantick Ocean, the latter containing many islands, and being bounded by large continents.

Between 28° and 40° of south latitude, and between 30° of west and 100° of east longitude from London, the wind is by far the greater part of the time between northwest and southwest ; and between the northern limit of the general trade wind, and the parallel of 40° in the Atlantick Ocean, the westerly winds prevail, but with less certainty.

Such winds are to be expected in consequence of the great quantity of air that ascends from the most rarified part near the equator, and diffuses itself toward the north and south in upper currents, which, when sufficiently cooled and condensed, will descend, and probably

become westerly winds between the limits of the general trade winds and the parallels of 40 degrees.

Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitudes of Cape Verd and the easternmost of the Cape de Verd Islands, is a tract of sea, which seems to be condemned to perpetual calms, attended with dreadful thunder and lightnings, and such frequent rains, that it has acquired the name of the *Rains*. This phenomenon seems to be caused by the great rarefaction of the air on the neighbouring coast, which causes a perpetual current of air to set in from the westward, and this current meeting here with the general trade wind, the two currents balance each other, and cause a general calm; while the vapours carried thither by each wind, meeting and condensing, occasion these frequent deluges of rain.

TIDES.

By the term *tide* is mean the regular alternate rising and falling of the water in the seas and rivers. The phenomena of the tides occasioned a variety of opinions among the ancient philosophers, and the cause was considered as one of the greatest mysteries in nature. It remained in obscurity till the latter end of the 16th century, when Sir Isaac Newton clearly pointed it out, and showed the agreement of its effects with the observed phenomena.

A heavy body, being thrown up in the air, falls again to the earth in a direction perpendicular to its surface, or in a line tending to its centre. The cause of the body's falling is a species of attraction called *gravity* or *gravitation*. This principle operates not only between the earth and all bodies near its surface, but also between all the bodies which compose the solar system, and probably between all the bodies and systems of the universe. And it is abundantly proved by experiment and observation, that the force of gravity is inversely as the squares of the distances of the bodies from one another, that is, the force decreases in the same ratio as the squares of the distances increase, and *vice versa*.

The flowing and ebbing of the sea are to be attributed to the attraction of the sun and moon; but principally to that of the moon on account of its less distance from the earth.

The attractive force of the moon, on different parts of the earth's surface is different in consequence of their different distances, being greatest on the part directly under it, and least on the opposite. And therefore, as fluids are easily put in motion by forces affecting them partially, the water becomes elevated under the moon. The attraction on the hemisphere nearest to the moon, counteracts and diminishes the gravitation toward the earth's centre, and as this diminution, or the force that produces it, is, at a given place, greatest when the moon is in the zenith, the water will be then most elevated. On the opposite hemisphere these two forces conspire, and their sum being least on the part of the earth's surface directly opposite to the moon, the water there recedes furthest from the centre, or becomes more elevated than in any other part of the hemisphere; so that the lunar attraction tends to raise the water on the part of the earth most remote from the moon, as well as on the nearest part; and, consequently, at places dia-

metrically opposite, the absolute time of *high water*, *full sea*, or *flood*, is the same.

At any place then, the moon, when on the meridian either above or below the horizon, tends to produce a flood, or elevation of the water, by causing it to flow from other parts, where of course there must be an ebb or depression. The waters in the vicinity of the places under and opposite to the moon flow toward them to maintain the equilibrium ; and to supply the places of these, others will move the same way, and so on to places ninety degrees distant ; consequently in those places where the moon appears in the horizon the waters will be lowest, that is, it will be *low water*, or *ebb*.

From what has been said it follows that were the surface of the earth entirely covered with water, the ocean would have a prolate spheroidical figure, the longest diameter passing through the place where the moon is vertical, and the shortest where it appears in the horizon. And as the moon apparently shifts its place from east to west in moving round the earth every day, the longest diameter of the spheroid following, there must be two floods and two ebbs in the length of a lunar day, or the time of the earth's rotation with respect to the moon, or about twenty-four hours fifty minutes.

Hence we see the reason why the time of high water is about fifty minutes later every day ; that is, if it be high water at eleven to-day, it will not be high water till near fifty minutes after eleven to-morrow.

It must be observed, however, that the time of high water at a place is not when the moon is in the meridian, but usually about three hours afterward, or the nearest elevation of the water follows the moon from east to west at a distance corresponding to about three hours of time. For, though the force be greatest when the moon is in the meridian, yet the greatest effect on the water cannot appear till some time afterward.

The sun has also an agency in producing the tides, but on account of its greater distance, the difference of its attraction on the nearest and remotest parts of the earth's surface, and at the centre, is much less, and of course its share in that effect ; as it depends not on the whole force of attraction, but on the difference of this force on different parts.

The tides are higher than ordinary twice a month, viz. about the times of the new and full moon ; and these are called *spring tides*. Because at these times the attraction of the sun conspires with that of the moon, or their agency is in the same right line ; and consequently the tides must be more elevated. When the two luminaries are in conjunction, or on the same side of the earth, they both conspire to raise the water on the nearest and remotest part ; and when they are in opposition, that is, when the earth is between them, the part nearest to one is remotest from the other, and *vice versa*, consequently the effects of their agency are united.

The tides are less than ordinary twice a month ; that is, about the times of the first and last quarters of the moon ; and these are called *neap tides*. For in the quarters of the moon, the sun raises the water where the moon depresses it ; and depresses it where the moon raises it ; the tides are made therefore by the difference of their actions.

It is, however, necessary to be observed, that the spring tides happen not precisely at the new and full moon, but a little after, when the attractions of the sun and moon have acted nearly in the same direction for a considerable time. Likewise the neap tides happen a little after the quarters when the force of the moon's attraction has been lessened by that of the sun for several days together.

The spring tides are greater about the time of the equinoxes than at other times of the year; and the neap tides are then least. For the longest diameter of the spheroid, or the two opposite floods, are at that time in the equator; consequently the difference of attraction at the two opposite elevations, and at the centre, is greater; and the floods describe a great circle of the earth, by the diurnal rotation of which those floods move swifter, describing a great circle in the same time they used to describe a small circle parallel to the equator, and consequently the waters, being impelled more forcibly against the shores, rise higher.

The tides are also affected by the variations in the distances of the sun and moon. Thus the sun, being nearer in winter than in summer, has a more powerful influence in producing these phenomena; or tends to make the spring tides higher and the neap tides lower. And, as the moon's orbit is elliptical, its distance varies, and consequently its attractive force.

Such would be the phenomena of the tides, where the whole surface of the earth covered with water; but as this is not the case, there being beside the continents a multitude of islands, lying in the way of the tide, and interupting its course; therefore in many places near the shores, a great variety of other appearances, beside those already enumerated, arise. These require particular solutions, in which the shores, straits, shoals, rocks and other objects, must be considered; a diquisition which requires much more room than can be afforded in this introduction. What has been said will however be sufficient to explain the theory of the tides in general, and enable the reader to pursue the inquiry and solve the difficulties that may arise with regard to any particular place.

NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

THE Planet we inhabit, called the Earth, is made up of land and water, and is therefore said to be *terraqueous*. About one fourth of the surface of the globe is land; the other three fourths are water.

The common divisions of land and water are as follow:

THE DIVISIONS OF LAND ARE

I. *Continents.**] A continent is a very large tract of country not entirely separated by water. There are commonly reckoned two continents, the *Eastern* and *Western*. The Eastern continent is divided

THE DIVISIONS OF WATER ARE

I. *Oceans.**] An ocean is a vast collection of water, not entirely separated by land. There are five great oceans: the *Atlantick*, lying between America on the west, and Europe and Africa on the east,

* The reader will observe that *Continents* answer to *Oceans*, *Islands* to *Lakes*, &c.

into Europe, Asia and Africa: the Western, into North and South-America. To these we may now add the continent of *New-Holland*, which is found to be sufficiently large to bear the respectable name of continent. Some geographers reckon four continents, viz. Europe, Asia, Africa and America. But according to the definition there are but three.

II. *Islands.*] An island is a tract of land entirely surrounded with water; as Rhode-Island, Long-Island, Cuba, Ireland, Great-Britain, Japan.

III. *Peninsulas.*] A peninsula is almost an island or a tract of land surrounded by water, except at one narrow neck; as, Boston, the Morea, Crim Tartary, and Arabia.

IV. *Isthmuses.*] An isthmus is a narrow neck of land joining a peninsula to the main land; as, the isthmus of Darien, which joins North and South-America, 70 miles over; and the isthmus of Suez, which unites Asia and Africa, 60 miles over.

V. *Promontories.*] A promontory is a mountain or hill extending into the sea, the extremity of which is called a *cape*. A point of flat land projecting far into the sea is likewise called a *cape*; as, Cape Ann, Cape Cod, Cape Hatteras, Cape Horn.

VI. *Mountains.*] A mountain is a part of the land more elevated than the adjacent country, and seen at a distance; as, the White Hills.

3000 miles wide. The *Pacifick*, between America on the east, and Asia on the west, 10,000 miles over. The *Indian* which washes the eastern shores of Africa, and the southern shores of Asia, 3,000 miles wide. Besides these there is the *Northern* or *Frozen Ocean*, lying northward of Europe and Asia, 3,000 miles wide; and the *Southern*, extending from the southern coasts of Africa to the south pole, 8,500 miles over.

II. *Lakes.*] A lake is a large collection of water, in the interior parts of a country, surrounded by land; most of them, however, communicate with the ocean by rivers; as, lake Ontario, &c. A small collection of water surrounded as above, is called a *pond*.

III. *Seas.*] A sea or gulf is a part of the ocean surrounded by land, except at a narrow pass, called a strait, by which it communicates with the ocean; as, the Mediterranean, Baltick and Red Seas; and the gulfs of Mexico, St. Lawrence and Venice.

IV. *Straits.*] A strait is a narrow passage out of one sea into another; as, the strait of Gibraltar, joining the Mediterranean to the Atlantick; the strait of Babelmandel, which unites the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

V. *Bays.*] A bay is the part of a sea running up into the main land, commonly between two capes; as Massachusetts Bay, between Cape Ann and Cape Cod; Delaware Bay, between Cape May and Cape Henlopen; Chesapeak Bay, between Cape Charles and Cape Henry.

VI. *Rivers.*] A river is a considerable stream of water, issuing from one or more springs, and gliding into the sea. A small stream is called a *rivulet*, or *brook*.

A TABLE,

Exhibiting the Superficial Content of the whole Globe, in square Miles, sixty to a degree, and also of the Seas and unknown Parts, the habitable Earth, the Continents; likewise the great Empires, and principal Islands, arranged according to their magnitude.

	Square Miles.		Square Miles.
The Globe, as some suppose, about	199,000,000	Ceram	5,400
		Breton	4,000
Seas and unknown parts	160,000,000	Socatra	3,600
The habitable World	39,000,000	Candia	3,220
America	14,000,000	Porto Rico	3,200
Asia	10,500,000	Corsica	2,520
Africa	9,500,000	Zealand	1,900
Europe	2,600,000	St. Jago	1,400
Continent of New-Holland	4,000,000	Long Island or Manhattan	1,400
Persian Emp. under Darius	1,600,000		
Roman Em. in its meridian	1,600,000		
Russian ———	4,000,000	Majorca	1,400
Chinese ———	1,700,000	Negropont	1,300
Great Mogul's ———	1,100,000	Teneriffe	1,270
United States of America	1,000,000	Gothland	1,000
New-England	72,000	Madeira	950
Turkish Empire	950,000	St. Michael	920
Present Persia	800,000	Skye	900
Borneo	228,000	Lewis	886
Madagascar	168,000	Funen	768
Sumatra	129,000	Yvica	625
Japan	118,000	Minorca	520
Great-Britain	72,900	Rhodes	480
Celebes	68,400	Cephalonia	420
Manilla	58,500	Amboyna	400
Iceland	46,000	Orkney Pomona	324
Terra del Fuego	42,000	Scio	300
Mindanao	39,100	Martinico	260
Cuba	38,400	Lemnos	220
Java	38,200	Corfu	194
Hispaniola	36,000	Providence	168
Newfoundland	35,500	Man	160
Ceylon	27,700	Bornholm	160
Ireland	27,500	Wight	150
Formosa	17,000	Malta	150
Anian	12,000	Barbaboes	140
Gilolo	10,400	Antigua	100
Sicily	9,400	St. Christopher's	80
Timor	7,800	St Helena	80
Sardinia	6,600	Guernsey	50
Cyprus	6,300	Rhode-Island	50
Jamaica	6,000	Jersey	43
Flores	6,000	Bermudas	40

New-Guinea New-Zealand New-Caledonia New-Hebrides Otaheite Friendly Islands Marquesas Easter, or Davis's Pelew Islands Ingraham's Islands	Islands lately discovered, but not fully explored, and whose dimensions are not exactly known.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

THERE is scarcely a greater variety in any thing than in this sort of measure; not only those of separate countries differ, as the French from the English, but those of the same country vary in the different provinces, and all commonly from the standard. Thus the common English mile differs from the statute mile, and the French have three sorts of leagues.

We shall here give the miles of several countries, compared with the English by Dr. Hally.

The English statute mile consists of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.

Eleven Irish miles are equal to fourteen English.

The Russian vorst is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ English.

The Turkish, Italian, and old Roman less, mile is nearly 1 English.

The Arabian ancient and modern, is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ English.

The Scotch mile is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ English.

The Indian is almost 3 English.

The Dutch, Spanish and Polish is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ English.

The German is more than 4 English.

The Swedish, Danish and Hungarian is from 5 to 6 English.

The French common marine league is nearly 3, and

The English marine league is 3 nautical miles.

DIFFERENT TIMES WHEN THE DAY BEGINS; AND A SHORT ACCOUNT OF THE OLD AND NEW STYLE.

The ancient Egyptians and Romans supposed the day to begin at midnight; and it is also now considered by the United States of America, Great-Britain, France, and most European countries, as beginning at that time. In astronomy, however, it is supposed to begin at noon, or the time when the sun is on the meridian. The beginning has been fixed at sunrise by some nations, as the ancient Babylonians, Persians, &c. and at sunset by others, as the ancient Jews, Grecians, &c.

In the *Julian calendar* or *old style*, a method of reckoning time, adopted by Julius Cesar, about 45 years before the birth of Christ, which was much preferable to any that preceded it, a year was supposed to

consist of 365 days and six hours ; each of 3 years in succession was considered as a common year of 365 days, and on account of the annual excess of 6 hours, another was added to every fourth, which consequently consisted of 366 days, and was called *leap* year. As the solar year, or the time of the apparent annual revolution of the sun, is not exactly 365 days and 6 hours, but nearly 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes and 48 seconds, it follows, that the Julian year exceeded the solar by about 11 minutes and 12 seconds. This annual excess amounts to 1 day in 129 years. Notwithstanding this inaccuracy the Julian style was generally used in Europe till the year 1582, when it was reformed by Pope Gregory the thirteenth, who introduced what is called the *Gregorian* or *new style*.

It having been found that the vernal equinox, which had been fixed to the 21st of March by the council of Nice, held in the year 325, happened the 11th of March in 1582, the difference of 10 days between the civil and real time was taken from the October of that year, and the 21st of the next March reduced to the true time of the equinox. But the Protestant states refused, at that time, to accede to the new style, which the Pope had enjoined on all the ecclesiasticks within his jurisdiction, and exhorted the Christian princes to adopt in their respective dominions ; and it did not commence in the British empire, of which the present United States of America then made a part, till the year 1752, when the error having increased to 11 days, they were, by an act of parliament, struck out of the calendar from the month of September, the third day, according to the old style, being called the fourteenth.

The reformation of the calendar consisted not only in expunging the excess of the civil above the real time, but also in the introduction of a principle which should prevent a like accumulation of error in future. According to the old style the last year of every century is a leap year, but in the new only every fourth of these leap years is retained, the rest being considered as common years. This diminution of the number of leap years nearly balances the error, which, at the rate of 11 minutes and 12 seconds a year, amounts to 1 day in 129 years, and 3 days in about 4 centuries.

It is, however, to be observed, that at the above annual rate of 11 minutes and 12 seconds, the accumulation in 4 centuries is 3 days, 2 hours and 40 minutes, so that the deduction of 3 days in 4 centuries falls short of the difference between the civil and real time by 2 hours and 40 minutes, which error will become equal to 1 day in 36 centuries.

We take no notice of the new French Calendar, which is designed to obliterate the Christian sabbath and the religion of the bible ; because, it is expected it will be of short duration, and will never, it is hoped, be adopted by any other nation.

AMERICA.

[*This* WESTERN CONTINENT *being, to Americans, the most interesting part of the World, we give it the first place in this Work.*]

HISTORY OF ITS DISCOVERY.

IT is believed by many, and not without some plausible foundation, that America was known to the Ancients. Of this, however, history affords no certain evidence. The Norwegians, the Welsh and the Germans, each in their turn, have made pretensions to the discovery of America. As early as 874 the Norwegians discovered, and planted a colony in Iceland; and in 982, they discovered and made settlements in Greenland. Thence some of their enterprising navigators proceeded still farther westward, till they discovered a country, the coast of which was sandy, but the interior parts level and covered with wood, on which account they called it *Helle-land* and *Mark-land*, and having afterwards found some plants of the vine, which bore grapes, they called it *Wine-land* or *Vine-land*. But where this country lies, historians are not agreed. If it was any part of the American coast, as it probably must have been, all attempts to plant colonies in it proved unsuccessful, and the knowledge of it was soon lost.*

* Mons. Mallet, in the first volume of his *Northern Antiquities*, gives us, from authorities of unquestionable credibility, a circumstantial account of the discovery and settlement of *Vine-land*. This author informs that Iceland was peopled by a colony of Norwegians, under Ingulph, in the year 874. Greenland was settled by Erick Rufus, a young Norwegian, in the year 982; and before the eleventh century, churches were founded, and a bishoprick erected at Garde, the capital of the settlement. Shortly after this, Bairn, an Icelandick navigator, by accident, discovered land to the westward of Greenland, which was more fully explored in the year 1002, and from the description given answers to no other than the American coast.

"The discovery of a distant country, says our author, called *Vine-land*, and the reality of a Norwegian colony's settling there, appear to be facts, so well attested on all sides, and related with circumstances so probable, as to leave no room for any doubt. But to settle the geography of the country where this happened, is not an easy matter. It could not, however, have been far from the coasts of Labrador, or those of Newfoundland; both which are in the vicinity of Greenland.

"Mr. Kalm, a Swedish botanist, educated under Linnæus, who some years since travelled through Canada, with a view to acquaint himself with its natural history, conjectures that the colony of Vine-land was the island of Newfoundland, which is separated from that part of the continent called Labrador, by a narrow strait only of a few leagues, called Belle-isle. Davis's strait, which separates Greenland from the American continent, is known to be very narrow in several places. The Greenlanders, according to Mr. Egede, assert that it is only a deep bay, which runs on narrowing towards the north, till the opposite American continent can be easily discerned from the Greenland shore; and that the extremity

The pretensions of the Welsh to the discovery of America, have but a slight foundation. In the 12th century, according to Powell, a dispute having arisen among the sons of Owen Gwyneth, king of North Wales, concerning the succession to his crown, Madock, one of the number, weary of this contention, betook himself to sea, in search of a more peaceful settlement. He steered due west, leaving Ireland to the north, and arrived in an unknown country which appeared to him desirable; he returned to Wales, and carried thither several of his adherents and companions. This is said to have taken place about the year 1170. He and his colony have not been heard of since.

For 40 or 50 years an opinion has prevailed, that a colony of white people, who speak the Welsh language, reside high up the Missouri river, supposed to be the descendants of these early emigrants. The conjecture is, that Madock, with his colony made the American continent in the gulf of Mexico, ascended the Missisippi, and settled on the Ohio, where for a time they flourished, and erected the forts which are found in that region; but about 300 years since, were conquered by the surrounding Indians, and the few who escaped, fled to the westward and planted themselves high on the Missouri, where they are now so numerous, as to be able to raise 50,000 men capable of bearing arms. Such are the conjectures concerning this Welsh colony, to which different degrees of credit are attached, by different people. There are but few authenticated facts to warrant these conjectures. The discoveries which are making in this country, by order of the general government, by Captains Clark and Lewis, will shortly determine whether these conjectures have any good foundation.

Some German authors ascribe the honour of having discovered America, to Martin Behaim, their countryman. He descended from a noble family, of the imperial town of Nuremburg—was a scholar of the celebrated John Muller, and became an adept in the science of cosmography. Under the patronage of the Dutchess of Burgundy he repaired to Lisbon, whither the fame of the Portuguese discoveries invited all the adventurous spirits of the age. In 1483, in company with Diego Cano, he made a voyage to the southward, and is

of this bay ends in a river, over which wandering savages, inured to cold, might easily pass from one shore to the other, without canoes. And hence the peopling of the north-eastern part of the American continent is easily and rationally accounted for. All accounts agree in describing Vine-land as a country which spontaneously produces the Vine. And this has led Dr. Robertson and others to consider the whole history as too fabulous to be credited. Dr. Robertson asserts that grapes are not the production either of Labrador or Newfoundland. But the learned Mr. Ellis, in his voyage to Hudson's bay, mentions that he met with the vine, about the English settlements at that place, and compares the fruit of it to the currants of the Levant. And credible travellers say that the vine grows spontaneously in Canada, and in still more northern latitudes, and bears a small well tasted fruit.

"On the whole," concludes our author, "there can be no doubt but that the Norwegian Greenlanders discovered the American continent; that the place where they settled was either the country of Labrador or Newfoundland: and that their colony subsisted there a good while. This is all we can say about it with any certainty. To endeavour to ascertain the exact situation, extent and fortune of the establishment, would be a fruitless labour."

said to have discovered the kingdom of Congo, on the coast of Africa. He settled in the island of Fayal, one of the Azores, and was a particular friend of Columbus. He constructed a terrestrial globe, which afterwards fell into the hands of Magellan. On this globe, Magellan laid down the course which he purposed to hold in search of the communication with the South Sea, which he afterwards discovered. In the year 1492, Behaim visited his relations at Nuremburg, and left with them a map, drawn with his own hand, which is still preserved among the archives of the family. So far the story of Martin Behaim is well authenticated; but as to the accounts of his having discovered any part of the American coast, though credited by some ingenious men, they have too great an appearance of conjecture to gain general belief.* For aught we can learn from authentick documents, the eastern continent was the only subject of history, the partial discoveries of the Norwegians excepted, from the creation till the year of our Lord 1492; and Columbus has a fair claim to the honour of discovering the NEW WORLD. A summary account of this discovery follows.

CHRISTOPHER COLON or COLUMBUS, a subject of the republick of Genoa, was among the foreigners, whom the fame of the Portuguese discoveries had allured into their service. He descended from a noble family reduced by misfortune; but neither the time nor place of his birth are certainly known. His ancestors, having had recourse to a seafaring life for support, Columbus, from his early youth, discovered such peculiar talents for that profession, as indicated his future greatness.—His parents encouraged this original propensity by giving him a suitable education. After acquiring some knowledge of the Latin tongue, the only language in which science was taught at that time, he was instructed in geometry, cos-

* The Librarian of St. Mark's Library at Venice, in a letter to the editors of a foreign magazine, furnishes the following curious fact relative to the discovery of America.

"To the inquiry which you make," says he, "I answer, that in the nautical map, existing in St Mark's Library, and lately published here by Signior Formaleoni, on the spot, where at present the *Antilles* are known to be, there certainly is delineated, a great island, with various harbours, and near it is written *y° de Antillia.* The delineation and the writing are all by the same hand; it cannot, therefore, be said, that any addition has been made to it. In it is written, in ancient characters, and by the same hand which wrote all the rest, *Andreas Biancho de Veneciis me fecit* MCCCCXXXVI.* Let it not appear extraordinary to you, that in those times they had a confused notion of the Antilles. I shall shew that even before the discovery of Columbus, they had an idea of them, and that the *Antillia* were mentioned. This I shall treat of in illustrating the manuscripts of *Andria Biancho*, together with the rest of St. Mark's Library, which now employs all the time I am able to call my own" Col. Mag. for Nov. 1791.

N B. The *Antilles* lie in the bay of Mexico, between the island of Cuba and South-America.

Glas, in his history of the Canary islands, says, "any one who has read with attention the first part of the *Nubian Geographer's* third climate, will be strongly inclined to believe that the *Arabs* had even some knowledge of America, or the West-India islands." See Introduction to his Hist. p. 4.

* Fifty six years before Columbus sailed, for the first time, from the port of Palos in Spain, for the discovery of the New World.

mography, astronomy, and the art of drawing. To these he applied with such ardour and attachment on account of their connection with navigation, his favourite object, that he made rapid proficiency in them. Thus qualified, in 1461, at the early age of fourteen, he went to sea, and began his career on that element, which conducted him to so much glory. His early voyages were limited principally to those places which had before been discovered, in which nothing very remarkable happened, except that in a sea fight, off the coast of Portugal, with some Venetian coasters, the vessel on board which he served, took fire, together with one of the enemy's, to which it was fast grappled; upon which he threw himself into the sea, laid hold of a floating oar, and by the support of it, and his dexterity in swimming, he reached the shore, though more than six miles distant, and thus preserved a life designed for great undertakings.

Soon after this he went to Lisbon, where he married a daughter of Bartholomew Perestrello, one of the captains employed by Prince Henry in his early voyages, and who had discovered and planted the islands of Porto Santo and Madeira. The journals and charts of this experienced navigator, his father-in-law, fell into his hands, and he, with avidity, availed himself of the valuable information which they contained. His impatience to visit the places which Perestrello had seen and described, became irresistible; and he made a voyage to Madeira, and spent several years in trading with that island, the Canaries, the Azores, the settlements in Guinea, and all other places which the Portuguese had discovered on the continent of Africa.

By the experience acquired during such a variety of voyages, Columbus became one of the most skilful navigators of Europe. But his ambition did not permit him to rest satisfied with that praise. A project had been conceived of finding out a passage by sea, to the East-Indies. The accomplishment of this became a favourite object with Columbus. The Portuguese sought this route by steering toward the south, in hope of arriving at India, by turning to the east, after they had sailed round the farther extremity of Africa; which passage was afterwards effected in 1497, by Vasco de Gama, a Portuguese navigator. Columbus contemplated a shorter and more direct passage to the East-Indies, by sailing towards the west, across the Atlantick Ocean. The principles and arguments which induced him to adopt this opinion, then considered as chimerical, were highly rational and and philosophical. The sphericity and magnitude of the earth, were at that period ascertained with some degree of accuracy. From this it was evident, that the continents of Eŭrope, Asia and Africa, formed but a small part of the terraqueous globe. It appeared likewise extremely probable, that the continent on the one side of the globe, was balanced by a proportionable quantity of land in the other hemisphere. These conclusions concerning the existence of another continent, drawn from the figure and structure of the globe, were confirmed by the observations and conjectures of modern navigators, and from pieces of timber artificially carved, canes of an enormous size, trees torn up by the roots, and the dead bodies of two men with singular features, which had been discovered and taken up floating before a westerly wind, or driven on the coasts of the Azores. The

force of this united evidence, arising from theoretical principles and practical observations, led Columbus to conclude, that by sailing directly towards the west, across the Atlantick Ocean, new countries, which probably formed a part of the vast continent of India, must infallibly be discovered.

As early as the year 1474, he communicated his ingenious theory to Paul, a physician of Florence, eminent for his knowledge of cosmography. He warmly approved of the plan; suggested several facts in confirmation of it, and encouraged Columbus to persevere in an undertaking so laudable, and which must redound so much to the honour of his country, and the benefit of Europe.

Columbus now become impatient to bring to the test of experiment the truth of his system, and to set out upon a voyage of discovery. The first step towards this, was to secure the patronage of some of the considerable powers of Europe. With this view he laid his scheme before the Senate of Genoa, and making his native and beloved country, the first tender of his service, offered to sail, under the banners of the republick, in quest of new regions which he expected to discover. But they, incapable of forming just ideas of his principles, inconsiderately rejected his proposal as chimerical. He then submitted his plan to the Portuguese, who perfidiously attempted to rob him of the honour of accomplishing it, by privately sending another person to pursue the same track which he had proposed. But the pilot, who was thus basely employed to execute Columbus's plan, had neither the genius nor the fortitude of its author. Contrary winds arose—no land appeared—his courage failed, and he returned to Lisbon, execrating a plan, which he had not abilities to execute.

On discovering this flagrant treachery, Columbus immediately quitted the kingdom in disgust, and landed in Spain, towards the close of the year 1484. Here he resolved to propose it in person to Ferdinand and Isabella, who at that time governed the united kingdoms of Castile and Arragon. He, in the mean time, sent his brother Bartholomew to England, with similar proposals to Henry VII.

After experiencing, during eight tedious years, a series of mortifying disappointments, which the brevity of this history will not permit us to relate, Columbus, in deep anguish, withdrew from court, determined to repair to England as his last resource. At this juncture the affairs of Spain, which had been perplexed in consequence of a war with the Moors, took a favourable turn. Quintanilla and Santangel, two powerful, vigilant and discerning patrons of Columbus, seized this favourable opportunity to make one more effort in behalf of their friend. They addressed themselves to Isabella with such forcible arguments as produced the desired effect. They dispelled all Isabella's doubts and fears. She ordered Columbus, who had entered on his journey, to be instantly recalled—declared her resolution to employ him on his own terms; and regretting the low state of her finances, generously offered to pledge her own jewels, in order to raise as much money as might be needed in making preparations for the voyage. Santangel, in a transport of gratitude, kissed the queen's hand, and in order to save her from having recourse to such a mor-

tifying expedient for procuring money, engaged to advance, immediately, the sum that was requisite.

Columbus had proceeded some leagues on his journey, when the messenger from Isabella overtook him. He returned with joy, mingled with some degree of fear, lest he should again be disappointed. The manner of his reception by the queen was, however, such as quickly dispelled his fears. A negociation commenced, and was forwarded with dispatch, and a treaty of capitulation with Columbus was signed on the 7th of April, 1492. The chief articles of it were, 1. Ferdinand and Isabella, as sovereigns of the ocean, constituted Columbus their high admiral in all the seas, islands and continents, which should be discovered by his industry ; and stipulated, that he and his heirs forever should enjoy this office, with the same powers and prerogatives which belonged to the high admiral of Castile, within the limits of his jurisdiction. 2. They appointed Columbus their viceroy in all the islands and continents which he should discover ; but if, for the better administration of affairs, it should be necessary to establish a separate Governour in any of those countries, they authorised Columbus to name three persons of whom they would choose one for that office ; and the dignity of viceroy with all its immunities, was likewise to be hereditary in the family of Columbus. 3. They granted to Columbus and his heirs forever, the tenth of the free profits accruing from the productions and commerce of the countries which he should discover. 4. They declared, if any controversy or lawsuit shall arise, with respect to any mercantile transaction, in the countries which shall be discovered, it should be determined by the sole authority of Columbus, or of judges to be appointed by him. 5. They permitted Columbus to advance one eighth part of what should be expended in preparing for the expedition, and in carrying on commerce with the countries which he should discover, and entitled him, in return, to an eighth part of the profit.

Though the name of Ferdinand appears conjoined with that of Isabella in this transaction, his distrust of Columbus was still so violent, that he refused to take any part of the enterprise, as king of Aragon. As the whole expense of the expedition was to be defrayed by the crown of Castile, Isabella reserved for her subjects of that kingdom, an exclusive right to all the benefits which might redound from its success.

After all the efforts of Isabella and Columbus, the armament was suitable, neither to the dignity of the power who equipped it, nor to the importance of the service to which it was destined. It consisted of three vessels ; the largest, a ship of no considerable burden, was commanded by Columbus, as admiral, who gave it the name of *Santa Maria*. Of the second, called the *Pinta*, Martin Pinzon was captain, and his brother Francis, pilot. The third, named the *Nigna*, was under the command of Vincent Yanez Pinzon. These two last mentioned, were light vessels, hardly superior in burden or force to large boats. This little squadron was victualled for twelve months, and had on board ninety men, mostly sailors, together with a few adventurers, who followed the fortune of Columbus, and some gentlemen of Isabella's court, whom she appointed to accompany him.

The sum employed in fitting out this squadron did not exceed 4000l. sterling.

On the 3d of August, 1492, being Friday,* Columbus set sail in the presence of a vast crowd of spectators, who offered fervent supplications to heaven for his success, which they rather wished than expected. He steered directly for the Canary islands, and in the short run thither, found his ships crazy and ill appointed, and very unfit for so long and dangerous a navigation as he had undertaken. After refitting them as well as he could, he left the Canaries on the 6th of September, and here properly commenced the voyage of discovery. He held his course due west, and immediately left the usual track of navigation, and stretched into unknown and unfrequented seas. By the 14th of September, the fleet was about 200 leagues west of the Canaries, at a greater distance from land than any Spaniard had been before that time.

Columbus early discovered, from the spirit of his followers, that he must prepare to struggle, not only with the unavoidable difficulties which might be expected from the nature of his undertaking, but with such also as were likely to arise from the ignorance and timidity of the people under his command. All the art and address he was master of, was hardly sufficient to quell the mutinous disposition of his sailors, who grew the more turbulent, in proportion as their distance from home increased. What most astonished Columbus, during the voyage, was the variation of the magnetick needle. He observed that it did not point exactly to the polar star, but varied towards the west. This appearance, then one of the mysteries of nature, though now familiar, filled the companions of Columbus with terror. They were now in the midst of a trackless ocean—nature herself seemed to be altered, and the only guide they had left was about to fail them. Columbus, with no less quickness than ingenuity, invented a reason for this appearance, which, though it did not satisfy himself, seemed so plausible to them, that it dispelled their fears, and silenced their murmurs.

On the evening of the 11th of October, Columbus was so confident, from various appearances, of being near land, that he ordered the sails to be furled, and the ships to lie too, and strict watch to be kept lest they should be driven on shore in the night. During this interval of suspense and expectation, no man shut his eyes, all kept on deck gazing intently towards that quarter where they expected to discover the land, which had so long been the object of their wishes. A little before midnight, Columbus, from the forecastle, discovered a light at a distance, and shortly after the joyful sound of *land!*

* The superstitious notion that *Friday* is an unlucky day to commence a voyage, did not, it seems, exist in the time of Columbus; otherwise he would not have fixed on this *unlucky day* to set sail on so important a voyage. When and whence did this superstitious notion originate? Why do men continue to entertain it, in an age which boasts a freedom from the shackles of superstition? Is it not time that it was banished? The success of Columbus in discovering a New World, during a voyage commenced on *Friday* proves, *if any thing*, that it is the most *lucky day* in the seven, for going to sea;—If so, why would it not be be well to substitute it in the room of the Sabbath, which is now too commonly fixed on for that purpose?

land! was heard from the Pinta, which always kept ahead of the other ships. At the dawn of day, an island was seen from every ship, at the distance of about two leagues north, whose verdant aspect indicated a most delightful country. The crews of all the ships, with tears of joy, and transports of congratulation, unitedly sang *Te Deum*, as a hymn of thanksgiving to God. They then, with feelings of self-condemnation, mingled with reverence, threw themselves at the feet of Columbus, begged him to forgive their ignorance, incredulity and insolence, which had given him so much unnecessary disquiet—acknowledged his superiour abilities, and promised obedience in future.

At sunrising, the boats were manned and armed, and they rowed towards the island with their colours displayed, with warlike musick and other martial pomp. As they approached the coast, they saw it covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the spectacle had drawn together, whose attitudes and gestures expressed wonder and astonishment at the strange objects before them. Columbus was the first European who set foot in the New World which he had discovered. He landed in a rich dress, and with a naked sword in his hand. His men followed, and kneeling down, they all kissed the ground which they had so long desired to see. They next erected a crucifix, and prostrating themselves before it, returned thanks to God for conducting their voyage to so happy an issue. They then took solemn and formal possession of the country for the crown of Castile and Leon.

The dress of the Spaniards, their beards, their arms, the vast machines with which they had traversed the ocean, the thundering roar of the cannon, accompanied with lightning and smoke, filled the natives with surprise and terror, and they began to consider them as children of the sun, who had descended to visit mortals here below.

The Spaniards were hardly less amazed in their turn. The productions of the island were different from any thing they had seen in Europe. The inhabitants appeared in the simple innocence of nature, entirely naked. Their black hair, long and uncurled, floated upon their shoulders, or was bound in tresses round their heads. They had no beards, and every part of their bodies was perfectly smooth. Their complexion was of a dusky copper colour; their features singular rather than disagreeable, and their aspect gentle and timid. They were shy at first through fear; but soon became familiar with the Spaniards, and with transports of joy, received from them various kinds of trinkets, in return for which they gave provisions, and some cotton yarn, the only commodity of value they could produce. Thus in the first interview between the inhabitants of the Old and New Worlds, every thing was conducted amicably, and to their mutual satisfaction.

The island on which Columbus first landed he called San Salvador. It is one of that large cluster of islands, known by the name of the Lucaya or Bahama islands, and is above 3000 miles west of the Canaries.

He afterwards touched at several islands of the same cluster, enquiring every where for gold, which he thought was the only object

of commerce worth his attention. In steering southward he discovered the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola, abounding in all the necessaries of life, and inhabited by a humane and hospitable people.

On his return to Spain he was overtaken by a storm, which had nearly proved fatal to his ships and their crews. At a crisis when all was given up for lost, Columbus had presence of mind enough to retire into his cabin, and to write upon parchment a short account of his voyage. This he wrapped in an oiled cloth, which he inclosed in a cake of wax, put it into a tight cask and threw it into the sea, in hopes that some fortunate accident might preserve a deposite of so much importance to the world. He arrived at Palos in Spain, whence he had sailed the year before, on the 15th of March, 1493. He was welcomed with all the acclamations which the populace are ever ready to bestow on great and glorious characters; and the court received him with marks of the greatest respect.

In September, of this year, (1493) Columbus sailed upon his second voyage to America; during the performance of which, he discovered the islands of Dominica, Marigalante, Guadaloupe, Montserrat, Antigua, Porto Rico and Jamaica; and returned to Spain, 1496.

In 1498, he sailed a third time for America; and on the 1st of August discovered the continent, at the mouth of the river Oronoke. He then coasted along westward, making other discoveries for 200 leagues to Cape Vela, from which he crossed over to Hispaniola, where he was seized by a new Spanish governour, and sent home in chains.

In 1502, Columbus made his fourth and last voyage to Hispaniola; thence he went over to the continent, discovered the bay of Honduras, thence sailed along the main shore easterly 200 leagues, to Cape Gracias a Dios, Veragua, Porto Bello and the Gulf of Darien, searching, in vain, for a passage to the East-Indies. During this voyage, he was shipwrecked on the island of Jamaica, where he suffered almost inconceivably from the cruelty of the inhabitants, the mutiny of his men, and especially from the infamous conduct of the governour of Hispaniola. He returned to Spain in 1504. On his arrival he received the fatal news of the death of his patroness, Queen Isabella.

The jealous and avaricious Spaniards, not immediately receiving those golden advantages from these new discoveries, which they had promised, and lost to the feelings of humanity and gratitude, suffered their esteem and admiration of Columbus to degenerate into ignoble envy.

The latter part of his life was made wretched by the cruel persecutions of his enemies. Queen Isabella, his friend and patroness, was no longer alive to afford him relief. He sought redress from Ferdinand, but in vain. Disgusted with the ingratitude of a monarch, whom he had served with so much fidelity and success; exhausted with hardships, and broken with the infirmities which these brought upon him, Columbus ended his active and useful life at Valadolid, on the 20th of May, 1506, in the 59th year of his age. He died with a composure of mind suited to the magnanimity which distinguished

his character, and with sentiments of piety becoming that supreme respect for religion which he manifested in every occurrence of his life. He was grave though courteous in his deportment, circumspect in his words and actions, irreproachable in his morals, and exemplary in all the duties of his religion.

Among other adventurers to the New World, in pursuit of gold, was Americus Vespucius, a Florentine gentleman, whom Ferdinand had appointed to draw sea charts, and to whom he had given the title of chief pilot. This man accompanied Ojeda, an enterprizing Spanish adventurer, to America; and having with much art, and some degree of elegance, drawn up an amusing history of his voyage, he published it to the world. It circulated rapidly, and was read with admiration. In his narrative he had insinuated that the glory of having first discovered the New World belonged to him. This was in part believed, and the country began to be called after the name of its supposed first discoverer. The unaccountable caprice of mankind has perpetuated the error; so that now, by the universal consent of all nations, this new quarter of the globe is called AMERICA. The bold pretensions of a fortunate impostor have robbed the discoverer of the New World of a distinction which belonged to him. The name of Americus has supplanted that of Columbus, and mankind are left to regret an act of injustice, which, having been sanctioned by time, they can never redress. [*Robertson.*]

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.

THE continent of America extends from Cape Horn, the southern extremity of the continent, in latitude 56° south, to the north pole; and spreads between the 35th and the 168th degree west lon. from Greenwich. It is nearly 10,000 miles in length from north to south. Its average breadth may be about 14 or 1500 miles. This extensive continent lies between the Pacifick Ocean on the west, and the Atlantick on the east. It is said to contain upwards of 14,000,000 square miles.

Climate, Soil and Productions.] In regard to each of these, America has all the varieties which the earth affords. It stretches through almost the whole width of the five zones, and feels the heat and cold of two summers and two winters in every year. Most of the animal and vegetable productions, which the eastern continent affords, are found here; and many that are peculiar to America, of which accounts will be given in their proper places.

Rivers.] This continent is watered by some of the largest rivers in the world. The principal of these, are Rio de la Plata, the Amazon and Oronoke, in South-America—The Missisippi and St. Lawrence, in North-America.

Gulf.] The Gulf or Bay of Mexico, lying in the form of a bason, between North and South-America, and opening to the east, is conjectured by some to have been formerly land; and that the constant attrition of the waters in the Gulf Stream, has worn it to its present form. The water in the Gulf of Mexico is said to be many yards higher, than on the western side of the continent, in the Pacifick Ocean.

Gulf Stream.] The Gulf Stream is a remarkable current, issuing from the Gulf of Mexico, whence it takes its name, and proceeding along the coast of Florida and the United States, to the banks of Newfoundland, where it turns off and runs down through the western islands; thence to the coast of Africa, and along that coast in a southern direction till it arrives at, and supplies the place of, those waters, which are carried by the constant trade winds from the coast of Africa, toward the west, thus producing a perpetual circulation.

This stream is probably generated by the great accumulation of water on the eastern coast of America between the tropicks, by the trade winds which constantly blow there, and by the continual afflux of the tides of the Atlantick Ocean. It is known that a large piece of water ten miles broad, and generally only three feet deep, has, by a strong wind, had its waters driven to one side and sustained, so as to become six feet deep, while the windward side was laid dry.* This may give some idea of the quantity heaped upon the American coast, and the reason of its running down in a strong current through the islands into the Gulf of Mexico, and issuing as above mentioned. This also renders the opinion, that the waters in the Bay of Mexico are considerably higher than the waters on the opposite coast of the Pacifick Ocean, in a high degree probable.

This stream is distinguished from the other parts of the ocean, by the Gulf weed, with which it is every where interspersed. It is also always 8 or 10 degrees warmer than the sea on each side of it, and it does not sparkle in the night, as do the other waters of the ocean. It is no wonder that so vast a body of deep warm water, several leagues wide, coming from between the tropicks, and issuing out of the gulf into the northern seas, should retain its warmth longer than the 20 or 30 days required for its passing the banks of Newfoundland. The quantity is too great, and too deep, to be suddenly cooled by passing under a cooler air. The air immediately over it may receive so much warmth from it as to be rarefied and rise, being rendered lighter than the air on each side of the stream; hence the surrounding denser air must rush in to supply the place of the rising warm air; and these masses of air, of so different densities, meeting with each other, form those tornadoes and water spouts, which are so common in and near the stream: and as the vapour from a cup of tea, in a warm room, is hardly discernible, but becomes visible, in the cold air; so the vapour from the Gulf Stream, in warm latitudes, is scarcely visible; but when it comes into cool air, off Newfoundland, it is condensed into the fogs for which those parts are so remarkable.

* Dr. Franklin.

The power of wind to raise water above its common level in the sea is evident, by the high tides occasioned in all our American sea ports, when a strong north-east wind blows against the Gulf Stream.

Skilful navigators, who have acquired a knowledge of the extent to which this stream reaches on the New-England coast, have learnt, in their voyages from Europe to New-England, New-York or Pennsylvania, to pass the banks of Newfoundland in about 44° or 45° North latitude ; to sail thence in a course, between the northern edge of the Gulf Stream, and the shoals and banks of Sable Island, George's Bank and Nantucket, by which they make better and quicker passages to America.

This stream is about 75 miles from the shores of the southern States. The distance increases as you proceed northward. The width of it is about 40 or 50 miles, widening toward the north. Its common rapidity is 3 miles an hour. A north-east wind narrows the stream, renders it more rapid, and drives it nearer the coast ; north-west and west winds have a contrary effect.

Isthmus of Darien.] The celebrated Isthmus of Darien, which divides North and South-America, lies in about 8° north latitude, and in the narrowest part is not more than 37 miles* across, on an E.N.E. and W. S. W. course. The country about the narrowest parts of the Isthmus is made up of low, sickly vallies, and mountains of such stupendous height, as to incline one to imagine that nature had raised them to serve as an eternal barrier between the Atlantick and Pacifick oceans, which here approach so near each other, that from these mountains you can plainly discern the waters of both at the same time, and seemingly at a very small distance.

Some have imagined it practicable to unite these oceans by a Canal, through this Isthmus. But an English Gentleman, from a late careful survey of the country, pronounces such an undertaking impracticable ; as the mountains run north and south, and several ridges of them, consisting of little else than solid rock and immense beds of oyster shells, must be dug through in order to accomplish it. But by going into 12° North Latitude, and joining the head of lake Nicaragua to a small river that runs into the Pacifick Ocean, a communication becomes practicable ; and by 30 miles digging through a level, low country, two oceans may be joined, and a tedious navigation saved, of 10,000 miles round Cape Horn. What would be the consequences of such a junction is not easy to say ; but it is very probable, that a small canal, in this place, would in the course of a few years be formed into a deep river ; more especially when we consider that the waters on the opposite shore of the Atlantick, as we before observed, are considerably higher than those in the Pacifick.

Probably, too, in a length of years, such a junction would wear away the earthy parts of the Isthmus, and form a broad strait between the oceans ; in which case the Gulf stream would cease, being turned into a different channel, and a voyage round the world would become an inconsiderable thing.

* Some say 70 miles.

Upwards of a hundred years ago, the Scots people had so just an idea of the great importance of this Isthmus, that they sent out a colony to settle there, which settlement, however, proved abortive, through the extreme jealousy of the Spaniards in that neighbourhood, but more through the shameful partiality of William III. and the jealousy of the English nation.

Mountains.] The principal mountains on this Western Continent are the famous chain of the *Andes* of South-America. They stretch along the Pacifick Ocean from the Straits of Magellan to the Isthmus of Darien or Panama, upwards of 4000 miles; thence they are continued through the extensive kingdom of New-Spain, till they lose themselves in the unknown countries of the North. In New-Spain, the most considerable part of this chain is known by the name of *Sierra Madre*, particularly in Cinaloa and Tarahumary, provinces 1200 miles distant from the capital. Farther north they have been called, from their bright appearance, the *Shining*, and farther still the *Stony Mountains*.

Little is known respecting them in the higher latitudes. It is conjectured that they terminate in about 47 or 48 degrees of north latitude, where a number of rivers rise and empty themselves either into the Pacifick Ocean, into Hudson's Bay, into the waters which lie between them, or into the Atlantick Ocean.

The *Allegany Mountains*, extending from Georgia to Hudson's river, in New-York, are next in magnitude and length to the *Andes*. It has been conjectured that they were a branch of the *Andes*, striking off in some part of South-America, and interrupted by the Gulf of Mexico; and that the West-India Islands were formerly united with each other, and formed a part of the continent. Their present disjointed situation is supposed to have been occasioned by the trade winds. It is well known, as we have before mentioned, that they produce a strong and continual current in the ocean from east to west, which, by beating against the continent for a long course of years, must have caused great alterations, and may possibly have produced the effect supposed.

In the Bahama channel are many indications that the island of Cuba was once united to Florida.

Population.] There are no *data* from which we may estimate the number of inhabitants in America, with any degree of accuracy. All calculations must proceed on uncertain grounds. The population of most of those countries which have been settled by Europeans has not been ascertained. Who then is capable of estimating the number of inhabitants in those numerous countries which have been but partially explored, and those which are altogether unknown to any European or other civilized nation? And such are those vast regions west, north-west, and north of the Missisippi and the Lakes, and immense countries in the interior parts of South-America. The number, even of nations, is unknown. We can therefore hardly guess at the number of inhabitants.

It has been common in estimating the population of the whole world to give 150 millions to America. The calculations of P. Riccioli make them 300 millions.—Susimilch, in one part of his work,

computes them at 100 millions, in another at 150 millions.—M. de Pauw says, that political arithmeticians do not reckon more than 100 millions; but it is his own opinion, that there are not more than from thirty to forty millions of "real Americans." I know not the principles upon which either of these authors grounded their calculations. I am inclined, however, to differ from them all. Some of them I am persuaded are far beyond the truth. I ground my dissent from the common opinion, and from the estimates of the forementioned respectable authors, on a calculation, made on the following simple principles, which I adopt because I know of none better.

I suppose the continent of America to contain 14 millions of square miles; including the islands, 15 millions. The United States contain one million square miles, or one fifteenth part of the American continent and islands. I suppose (merely for the purpose of calculation, what I do not believe to be fact) that every other part of America is as populous as the United States. Probably there may be some parts, particularly the West-India islands, and some provinces in Spanish America, which are more populous, but there are many other parts which are by no means so populous. The probability is, in my opinion, that the other parts of America, collectively considered, are not nearly so thickly inhabited as the territory of the United States. There is certainly no reason to believe that they are more populous. Indian population is thin; and vast tracts of deserts, marshes, and mountains are uninhabited. In the United States we reckon four millions of inhabitants, Anglo-Americans, negroes, mulattoes, and Indians, within the jurisdiction of the General Government.* Beside these, there may be about 50,000 Indians, independent of the United States, and subject to their own princes. The whole population of the United States, then, we reckon at 4,050,000. If then we suppose America to contain 15 millions of square miles; and that in every part it is equally as populous as the United States, that is, that there are in every million of square miles 4,050,000 inhabitants, the whole number will be *sixty millions seven hundred and fifty thousand.* The exact number I presume is considerably less than this.†

When was America peopled?] That America was peopled very anciently and soon after the flood, is very probable: 1. Because the aboriginal Americans, till they became acquainted with Europeans, were ignorant of those arts and inventions, such, among others, as those of wax and oil for light, which being very ancient in Europe and Asia on the one hand, are, on the other, most useful, not to say necessary, and when once discovered, are never forgotten. 2. Because the polished nations of the New World, and particularly those of Mexico, preserve in their traditions and paintings, the memory of the Creation of the World, the building of the Tower of Babel, the confusion of languages, and the dispersion of the people, though

* This calculation was made in 1789, when there were about this number of inhabitants in the United States.

† It was the opinion of the late learned President Stiles, who paid great attention to the subject of Indian population, that the number of Indians in America is less than two millions and an half. (MS. Letter to the Author.) On this hypothesis the number of inhabitants on this Continent will probably be reduced to less than thirty millions.

blended with some fables, and had no knowledge of the events which happened afterwards in Asia, Africa or Europe, many of which were too remarkable to escape the memory. 3. Because neither was there among the Americans any knowledge of the people of the old continent, nor among the latter any account of the passage of the former to the New World. These reasons we presume render it at least probable that America was peopled early after the flood.*

Who were the first people of America? and whence did they come? } On these two questions much has been said. Those who call in question the authority of the sacred writings say, the Americans are not descendants from Adam, that he was the father of the Asiaticks only, and that God created other men to be the patriarchs of the Europeans, Africans and Americans. But this is only one among the many weak hypotheses of unbelievers, and is wholly unsupported by history. It is contrary to the tradition of the Americans, who in their paintings, and in their hymns, called themselves the descendants of those who escaped from the general deluge. The Mexicans, Toltecas, and several other nations, were agreed in this point. They all said their ancestors came from other parts into those countries; they pointed out the road they came, and even preserved the names, true or false, of their first progenitors, who, after the confusion of languages, separated from the rest of mankind. These traditions, with others, which the limits of this work will not allow us to insert, considered in connection with the sacred writings, must convince us that we ought to seek among the descendants of Noah, for the first people of America.

But who were they? To recite all the opinions given in answer to this question, and the reasons to support them, would fill a volume. Dr. Robertson and the Abbe Clavigero have extensively and learnedly investigated the subject. I cannot expect to afford the reader more satisfaction than to give him the result of their inquiries. Dr. Robertson, having recapitulated and canvassed the most plausible opinions on the subject, comes to the following conclusions, viz.

1. That America was not peopled by any nation from the ancient continent, which had made any considerable progress in civilization; because, when America was first discovered, its inhabitants were unacquainted with the necessary arts of life, which are the first essays of the human mind toward improvement; and if they had ever been acquainted with them, for instance, with the plough, the loom, and the forge, their utility would have been so great and obvious, that it is impossible they should have been lost. Therefore the ancestors of the first settlers in America were uncivilized and unacquainted with the necessary arts of life.

This reasoning is not by any means conclusive. Any number of people who should migrate from a civilized to a savage country, and for a length of years should cease all intercourse with civilized society, it is easy to suppose, would soon lose all knowledge of the plainest and most useful arts of life. Not one in 10,000 of such migrants

* Abbe Clavigero's Hist. Mexico, Vol. II. page 210.

usually possess any knowledge of *mines;* without this knowledge, the uses of iron utensils must soon be lost, and with them civilization also would cease.

2. America could not have been peopled by any colony from the more southern nations of the ancient continent; because none of the rude tribes of these parts possessed enterprize, ingenuity or power, sufficient to undertake such a distant voyage: but more especially, because, that in all America there is not an animal, tame or wild, which properly belongs to the warm, or temperate countries of the eastern continent. The first care of the Spaniards, when they settled in America, was to stock it with all the domestick animals of Europe. The first settlers of Virginia and New-England brought over with them horses, cattle, sheep, &c. Hence it is obvious that the people, who first settled in America, did not originate from those countries where these animals abound, otherwise, having been accustomed to their aid, they would have supposed them necessary to the improvement, and even support of civil society.

Admitting such voyages to have been performed, might they not have been the result of *accident*, rather than *design?* Coasting vessels may have lost their course, and fallen in with the trade and other winds, and been driven on the coasts of America. Such voyages would not be likely to carry with them either animals or the implements of art or convenience suitable for the settlement of a new country.

3. Since the animals in the northern regions of America correspond with those found in Europe in the same latitudes, while those in the tropical regions are indigenous, and widely different from those which inhabit the corresponding regions on the eastern continent, it is more than probable that all the original American animals were of those kinds which inhabit northern regions only, and that the two continents, towards the northern extremity, are so nearly united, as that these animals might pass from one to the other.

4. It having been established beyond a doubt, by the discoveries of Capt. Cook in his last voyage, that at *Kamtschatka*, in about latitude 66° north, the continents of Asia and America are separated by a strait *only* 18 miles wide, and that the inhabitants on each continent are similar, and frequently pass and repass in canoes from one continent to the other;* from these and other circumstances it is rendered highly probable that America was first peopled from the north-east parts of Asia. But since the Esquimaux Indians are manifestly a separate species of men, distinct from all the nations of the American Continent, in language, in disposition, and in habits of life, and in all these respects bear a near resemblance to the northern Europeans, it is believed, that the Esquimaux Indians emigrated from the north-west parts of Europe.† Several circumstances confirm this belief. As early as the ninth century, the Norwegians discover-

* Capt. Cook saw the Islanders in the South Sea 200 leagues from home in their canoes.

† The Indians on the north-western coasts of America, many of them, according to Capt. Cook, appear to be of the same race with the Esquimaux.

ed Greenland, and planted colonies there. The communication with that country, after long interruption, was renewed in the 16th century. Some Lutheran and Moravian missionaries, prompted by a zeal for propagating the Christian faith, have ventured to settle in this frozen region. From them we learn, that the north-west coast of Greenland is separated from America, but by a very narrow strait, if separated at all; and that the Esquimaux of America perfectly resemble the Greenlanders in their aspect, dress, mode of living, and probably language.* By these decisive facts, not only the consanguinity of the Esquimaux and Greenlanders is established, but the possibility of peopling America from the north-west parts of Europe. On the whole, it appears rational to conclude, that the progenitors of all the American nations, from Cape Horn to the southern limits of Labrador, from the similarity of their aspect, colour, &c. migrated from the north-east parts of Asia; and that the nations that inhabit Labrador, Esquimaux, and the parts adjacent, from their unlikeness to the American nations, and their resemblance to the northern Europeans, came over from the north-west parts of Europe.†

Such is the opinion of Dr. Robertson, on the question before us. The opinion of the Abbe Clavigero, who was a native of America, and had much better advantages for knowing its history than Dr. Robertson, and who also is a later writer, explains his opinion in the following conclusions:—1. The Americans descended from different nations, or from different families dispersed after the confusion of tongues. No person will doubt of the truth of this who has any knowledge of the multitude and great diversity of the American languages. In Mexico alone, 35 have already been discovered.‡ In South-America still more are known. In the beginning of the 16th century the Portuguese counted 50 in Maragnon.§ Between some of these languages, there is indeed a great affinity;‖ but others are as different from each other as the English and the Hebrew. It is a truth, that no living or dead languages can differ more than the languages of the Mexicans, Otomies, Tarascas, Mayas, and Miztecas, five languages prevailing in different provinces of Mexico. It would therefore be absurd to say, that languages so different were different dialects of one original. Is it probable or even possible that a nation should alter its primitive languages to such a degree, or multiply its dialect so variously, as that there should not be, even after many centuries, if not some words common to all, at least an affinity between them, or some traces left of their origin?

* Crantz's Hist. Greenland, Vol. I. p. 261, 262.

† Hist. of America, Vol. II. p. 22, &c.

‡ These are dialects of a very few original languages, as Clavigero himself afterwards acknowledges.

§ This fact has been doubted. There are very few original languages in the world, three only exist in Asia, viz. the Sanscrit, the Arabick, and the Tartar, of which all the others are dialects. The islands lately discovered in the Pacifick Ocean have not been found to have more than two. Between the Missisippi, the Ohio, St. Lawrence and the Atlantick, there was but one except the Iroquois, and this nation were intruders upon the original inhabitants.

‖ This *affinity* may be nothing more than the resemblance of one *dialect* of the same language to another.

2. The Americans do not derive their origin from any people now existing as a nation on the eastern continent; at least there is no reason to affirm that they do. This inference is founded on the same argument with the preceding; since, if the Americans are descendants from any of these nations, it would be possible to trace their origin by some marks in their languages in spite of the antiquity of their separation; but any such traces have not yet been discovered, although most diligent and attentive search has been made, as appears from the work of Dominican Garcia. We have, says Clavigero, leisurely compared the Mexican and other American languages with many others which are now living, and with those which are dead, but have not been able to discover the least affinity between them.* This argument is strong with respect to the Americans, as they shew great firmness and constancy in retaining their languages.† The Mexicans preserve their language among the Spaniards, and the Otomies retain their difficult dialect among Spaniards and Mexicans, after communication with both for more than two centuries and an half.

If the Americans descended from different families dispersed soon after the confusion of tongues,‡ as we believe, and have since been separated from those others who peopled the countries on the eastern continent, authors will labour in vain to seek, in the language or customs of the Asiaticks, for the origin of the people of America.

But the most difficult point in the problem of the population of America remains to be solved, and that is, how did the inhabitants and animals originally pass to America, and from what parts did they come? Among the various opinions of authors upon this point, the following is the Abbe Clavigero's.

1. The men and animals of America passed there from the old continent. This is confirmed by the sacred writings. Moses, who declares Noah the common father of all men who survived the deluge, says expressly, that in that general inundation of the earth all its quadrupeds, birds and reptiles perished, except a few of the several species which were saved alive in the ark, to re-people the earth with their kind. The repeated expressions which the sacred historian uses to signify its universality, do not permit us to doubt, that all quadrupeds, birds, and reptiles, which are in the world, descended from those few individuals which were saved from the general inundation.

2. The first inhabitants of America might pass there in vessels by sea, or travel by land or by ice. 1. They might either pass there in vessels designedly, if the distance by water was but small, or be carried upon it accidentally by favourable winds. 2. They might pass by land on the supposition of the union of the continents. 3. They might also make that passage over the ice of some frozen arm of the sea.

* It is doubted whether this author had such a complete knowledge of all the American languages, as to authorize his assertions and conclusions.

† No nation alters its language, except as it alters its ideas, and those particularly which it finds a necessity of communicating.

‡ The Mexican nation have direct and clear traditions of the confusion of tongues, and declare that their ancestors left Asia since that event. They have preserved this tradition in their historical pictures. The people of Hispaniola had a similar tradition.

3. The ancestors of the nations which peopled *Anahuack*, (now called *New-Spain*) might pass from the northern countries of Europe into the northern parts of America, or which is more probable, from the most eastern parts of Asia, to the most western parts of America. This conclusion is founded on the constant and general tradition of those nations, which unanimously say, that their ancestors came into Anahuack from the countries of the north and north-west. This tradition is confirmed by the remains of many ancient edifices, built by those people in their migrations. In a journey made by the Spaniards in 1606, from New-Mexico unto the river which they call *Tizon*, 600 miles from that Province towards the north-west, they found there some large edifices, and met with some Indians who spoke the Mexican language, and who told them, that a few days journey from that river towards the north, was the kingdom of Tollan, and many other inhabited places, whence the Mexicans migrated. In fact, the whole people of Anahuack have usually affirmed, that towards the north, were the kingdoms and provinces of Tollan, Aztlan, Copalla, and several others which have all Mexican names. Boturini says, that in the ancient paintings of the Toltecas was represented the migration of their ancestors through Asia and the northern countries of America, until they established themselves in the country of Tollan ; and even endeavours to ascertain, in his general history, the route they pursued in their travels.

With respect to the other nations of America, as there is no tradition among them, concerning the way by which their ancestors came to the New World,* we can say nothing certain of them. It is *possible* that they all passed by the same way in which the ancestors of the Mexicans passed, but it is more probable that they passed by a very different route. We conjecture that the ancestors of the nations of South-America went there by the way in which the animals proper to hot countries passed ; and that the ancestors of those nations inhabiting Esquimaux and Labrador, and the countries adjacent, passed thither from the north-west parts of Europe. The difference of character which is discoverable in the three above mentioned classes of aboriginal Americans, and the situation of the countries which they occupied, afford ground to suspect that they had different origins, and that their ancestors came there by different routes. But this is mere conjecture.

4. The quadrupeds and reptiles of the New World passed there by land. This fact is manifest from the improbability and inconsistency of all other opinions. St. Augustin solves the difficulty of peopling the islands with wild beasts and destructive animals by supposing either, 1. That the angels transported them hither ; (a solution,

* The inhabitants of North-America all (the Esquimaux and their kindred nations excepted) declare that they came from the north-east. The Natchez, indeed, held that they came from the south-west. But this was an emigration long after the first one, and was only an ejection from their original settlements in Mexico or Granada, by the more warlike tribes which followed them from Asia.

N. B. For the information contained in the foregoing and some of the subsequent notes, the Author is indebted to the Rev. Dr. Dwight, President of Yale College.

which, though it cuts off every difficulty in the passage of animals to the New World, would not be satisfactory in the present age) or 2. That they might swim to the islands; or 3. That they might have been carried there by men for the sake of hunting; or 4. That they might have been formed there by the Creator in the beginning. Others have imagined that beasts might pass over some frozen strait or arm of the sea. But as neither of these opinions can be supported,† the probability is, that the quadrupeds, as well as the reptiles which are found in America, passed thither by land, and of course that the two continents were formerly united. This was the opinion of Acosta, Grotius, Buffon, and other great men. That this earth has experienced great changes since the deluge will not admit of a doubt. Earthquakes have swallowed up large tracts of land in some places—subterraneous fires have thrown up others—the sea in some places has been forced to retreat many miles from the shore—in others it has made encroachments—and in many instances separated territories which were formerly united. Very considerable tracts of land have been also formed at the mouths of rivers. We have many examples of all these revolutions. Sicily was formerly united to the continent. The straits of Gibraltar, as Diodorus, Strabo and other ancient authors affirm, were formed by a violent irruption of the ocean upon the land between the mountains Abyla and Calpe. The people of Ceylon have a tradition, that a similar irruption of the sea separated their island from the peninsula of India. The same is believed by the inhabitants of Malabar with respect to the isles of Maldivia, and by the Malayans with respect to Sumatra. Ceylon, as Buffon asserts, has lost 30 or 40 leagues of land, by the sea—Tongres, a place in the Low Countries, has gained 30 leagues of land from the sea; and Florida and the southern American States have gained as much from the bay of Mexico, and the islands between North and South-America. The northern part of Egypt owes its existence to inundations of the Nile; and the province of Yellow River in China, and part of Louisiana in America, have both been formed by the mud of rivers. The peninsula of Yucatan has every appearance of having once formed a part of the bed of the sea. In the strait which separates America from Asia, many islands are found, which probably were the mountains belonging to that part of the land which we suppose to have been swallowed up by earthquakes; this is rendered probable by the multitude of volcanoes which have been discovered in the peninsula of Kamtschatka. The sinking of that land, however, and the separation of the two continents, was probably occasioned by those extraordinary earthquakes mentioned in the histories of the Americans, which formed an era almost as memorable as that of the deluge.

5. The quadrupeds and reptiles of America passed by different places from the one continent to the other. Among the American beasts, there are many whose natures are averse to cold; such are apes, dantes, crocodiles, &c.—There are others formed to inhabit cold countries; such are martins, rein-deer and gluttons. The form-

† See Clavigero's Hist. of Mexico, Vol. II. Dissert. I. p. 216, where all these opinions are shown to be highly improbable, not to say impossible.

er could not go to America through any country in the frigid zone. Their natures would not have admitted it. They would have perished in their passage. We cannot indeed imagine what inducement they could have to quit a climate, congenial to their nature, and undertake a journey they knew not whither, through a region whose cold they could not endure. How did they know there was a country friendly to their natures in America?

The apes which are in New-Spain passed there, certainly, from South-America. Time was, when they did not inhabit that country, and it is known that they came from the South. The centre of their population is the country under the equator, and 14 or 15 degrees on each side of it. It decreases as you depart from this tract on either side, till you arrive at the tropicks, when it ceases, and none are found except in some few districts, which, from the peculiarity of their situation, are as hot as the equinoctial country. None can imagine that this species of animals travelled to the New World through the cold regions of the north. Nor can we believe that they were transported thither by men; for, not to mention that some of them are of a ferocious disposition, and very unlikely to be selected to be companions on a long voyage, to people a new country, there is another still greater difficulty: As they could not have been conducted over the seas and countries of the north, on account of the cold, they must have been transported from the warm countries of the old, to the warm countries of the New World, over a sea subject to a clime not dissimilar to the native country of those quadrupeds, that is, by the countries of the southern parts of Asia, to about the same latitudes in America, over the Indian and Pacifick Oceans; or from the western countries of Africa to the eastern countries of America, over the Atlantick Ocean. If, therefore, men transported those animals from the one to the other world, they did it across those seas. But was this navigation accidental or designed? If the former, how, and why did they carry so many animals with them? If the latter, if they were determined to pass from the old to the new continent, who gave them intelligence of the New World? Who shewed them the situation of those countries? How did they venture to cross such vast seas without a compass? In what vessels did they pass? If they landed there happily, why does there not remain, among the Americans, some memory of their constructions? Why—but it is needless to start more objections; those already mentioned can never be answered.

Besides, in the torrid zone, and the warm climates that border upon it, in the New World, crocodiles are common animals, which require a hot or temperate climate, and live alternately on land or in sweet water: How did such animals pass there? Not by the north—they could not endure the cold. No one will believe they were transported by men; nor yet that they swam thither 2,000 miles through an ocean of salt water.

There remains no other solution but that of admitting an ancient union between the equinoctial countries of America and those of Africa; and a connection of the northern countries of America with Europe on the east, and Asia on the west; so that there has probably

been a period since the flood, when there was but ONE Continent. The beasts of cold climes passed over the northern isthmusses, which probably connected Europe, America and Asia; and the animals and reptiles peculiar to hot countries passed over the isthmus that connected South-America with Africa. For the reasons already mentioned induce us to believe that there was formerly a tract of land, which united the most eastern part of Brazil to the most western part of Africa; and that all the space of land may have been sunk by violent earthquakes, leaving only some traces of it in that chain of islands of which Cape de Verd, Fernando, de Norona, Ascension and St. Matthew's islands make a part; and also in those many sand-banks discovered by different navigators, and particularly by de Bauche, who sounded that sea with great exactness. These islands and sand-banks may probably have been the highest parts of that sunken isthmus. In like manner it is probable the north-western part of America was united to the north-eastern part of Asia by a neck of land which has been sunk or washed away, and the north-eastern parts of America to the north-western parts of Europe, by Greenland, Iceland, &c.

On the whole, we cannot but believe that the quadrupeds and the reptiles of the New World passed there by land, and by different routes, from the old continent. All other suppositions are subject to heavy difficulties; and this is not without some, which however are not altogether insurmountable. The greatest is the improbability of an earthquake so great as to sink a space of land for more than 1500 miles in length, which, according to our supposition, united Africa and South-America. But we do not ascribe this stupendous revolution to a single shock; it may have been effected by a succession of earthquakes. It is well known that they are common in the climates where we suppose the isthmus to have been. It is not impossible, or improbable, that such an effect should be produced by earthquakes, nor is history destitute of such examples to our purpose. The earthquake which was felt in Canada in 1663,* overwhelmed a chain of mountains of free-stone more than 300 miles long, and the whole of that immense tract was changed into a plain. How great then must have been the convulsion which was occasioned by those extraordinary earthquakes, mentioned in the histories of America, when the world was thought to be coming to an end!

It may farther be objected to this system, that if beasts passed by land from one continent to the other, it is not easy to assign the cause why some species passed there without leaving a single individual in the old continent; and on the contrary, that some entire species should remain in the old continent, and not a single individual of them pass to America. But this objection operates with equal force against all other opinions, except that which employs angels in the transportation of beasts. But suppose it did not, we have a satisfactory answer to it. All the quadrupeds of the earth are not yet known; we cannot therefore say how many are in the one which are not in the other continent. The knowledge of the best informed zoologists is very

* See an account of this earthquake, and of many others, which happened in New-England, in the third Vol. of the American Museum, p. 292, written by Professor Williams, F. A. A. of Cambridge, (N. E.)

imperfect, and they differ among themselves. The Count de Buffon numbers only two hundred species of quadrupeds. Bomare, who wrote a little after him, makes them 265; but to say how many more there may be, and of what kinds they are, until we have examined the interior regions of Africa, of a great part of Tartary, the country of the Amazons, and the vast territory west of the Missisippi, and various other unexplored and extensive countries, which together constitute a great part of the whole globe, would be mere conjecture. No argument, therefore, can be inferred from the difference of the animals in the two continents, against our system, till the animals in these unexplored regions shall have been examined.*

We have dwelt the longer on this subject, as it must be interesting to every inquisitive mind, and the discussion of it is blended with much useful information.

Inhabitants.] Having stated the present population of America, from the best *data* we could find, and given the most probable accounts of the manner in which it was originally peopled, it will be expected that we now say something of its inhabitants, of their character, manners, &c.

The present Americans may be divided into two general classes—*First*, The proper Americans, commonly called Indians, sometimes Aborigines, or those who are descended from the first inhabitants of the New World, and who have not mixed their blood with the inhabitants of the old continent. *Secondly*, Those who have migrated, or have been transported to America, since its discovery by Columbus, and their descendants. The former may be subdivided into three classes: *First*, The South-American Indians, who came over in the manner we have supposed, from the northern and western parts of Africa, and the southern parts of Asia and Europe. *Secondly*, The Mexicans and all the Indians south of the Lakes and west of the Missisippi. *Thirdly*, The inhabitants of Esquimaux, Labrador, and the countries around them. The latter may also be distinguished into three classes. *First*, Europeans of many different nations, who have migrated to America, and their descendants, of unmixed blood: In this class we include the Spaniards, English, Scotch, Irish, French, Portuguese, Germans, Dutch, Swedes, &c. both in North and South-America. *Secondly*, Africans, who have been transported to America and its islands, and their descendants. *Thirdly*, The mixed breeds, called by the Spaniards, *Caslas*, by the English, Mulattoes, that is, those who are descended from an European and an American, or from an European and African, or from an African and American. Leaving the second class, viz. the migrants to America since its discovery by Columbus, and their descendants, to be described when we shall treat of the countries they respectively inhabit, we shall, under this article, confine ourselves to the proper aboriginal Americans, or Indians.

We begin with the South-Americans. Various have been the accounts given of these people. Some historians exalt them to the rank of the best and happiest people on earth; others seem unwilling to give them a place among human beings. We presume these histe-

* Abbe Clavigero's Hist. of Mexico, Vol. II. Diss. 1.

rians, who differ so widely, spoke of different nations; and on this ground, with proper allowances for exaggeration on both sides, we may reconcile them. Columbus gives the following account of the Indians of Hispaniola, to Ferdinand and Isabella.

"I swear to your majesties, that there is not a better people in the world than these; more affectionate, affable and mild; they love their neighbours as themselves; their language is the sweetest, the softest, and the most cheerful, for they always speak smiling; and although they go naked, let your majesties believe me, their customs are very becoming; and their king, who is served with great majesty, has such engaging manners, that it gives great pleasure to see him, and also to consider the great retentive faculty of that people, and their desire of knowledge, which invites them to ask the causes and the effects of things."*

Las Casas, the first bishop of Chiapa, who resided several years in different parts of America, speaks thus of them: "The Americans are a people of a bright and lively genius, easy to be taught, and to apprehend every good doctrine, extremely ready to embrace our faith, and the people, of all others in the world, who feel least embarrassment by it." In another place, this writer says, "The Indians have as good an understanding, and acute a genius, as much docility and capacity for the moral and speculative sciences, and are, in most instances, as rational in their political government, as appears from many of their very prudent laws, and are as far advanced in our faith and religion, in good customs and civilization, where they have been taught by persons of religious and exemplary life, and are arriving at refinement and polish as fast as any nation ever did since the times of the apostles."

Doctor Robertson, speaking of the Mexicans and Peruvians, whom he is not disposed to rank with those nations which merit the name of civilized, has the following remarks—"When compared with other parts of the New World, Mexico and Peru may be considered as polished states. Instead of small, independent, hostile tribes, struggling for subsistence amidst woods and marshes, strangers to industry and arts, unacquainted with subordination, and almost without the appearance of regular government, we find countries of great extent subjected to the dominion of one sovereign, the inhabitants collected together in cities, the wisdom and foresight of rulers employed in providing for the maintenance and security of the people, the empire of laws in some measure established, the authority of religion recognized, many of the arts essential to life brought to some degree of maturity, and the dawn of such as are ornamental beginning to appear." These are testimonies respecting the Indians who inhabit the more northern parts of South-America, and the islands; who appear to have made greater advances in civilization than those farther south, concerning whom our information is very imperfect.

Charlevoix, in his history of Paraguay, has collected from the Jesuits, perhaps the best information, respecting the more southern Indians. Comparing his particular descriptions of the numerous nations who inhabit the southern division of South-America, we give the fol-

* Hist. of Columbus, Chap. xxxii.

lowing as the leading traits in their general character. They are generally of an olive complexion, some darker, others lighter, and some as white as the Spaniards. Their stature is rather below than above the middling size; though some nations rank among the tallest of the human species. Most of them are thick legged and jointed, and have round and flat faces.

Almost all the men and children, in the warm climates, and in the summer, in colder regions, go quite naked. The women wear no more covering than the most relaxed modesty seems absolutely to require. Every nation has a different dialect, and a different mode of adorning themselves. The clothing of such as make use of it, is made of the skins of beasts, of feathers sewed together, and in the southern and colder regions, where they raise sheep, of wool manufactured into stuffs and blankets. They are represented as almost universally addicted to drunkenness. All nations, in a savage state, have a strong propensity to the use of ardent spirits, generated by their manner of living, unrestrained by education or example. Men of the best characters for sobriety, temperance and piety, who were in the French war of 1756, in this country, and frequently sent on scouting-parties, have declared that their thirst for spirituous liquors was so increased as to be scarcely resistible. There seems to be no other vice common to them all. A few of them are cannibals, and some nations are idolaters; in general they have some notions of a Supreme Being, and have words in their various languages to express their ideas of him. They believe in the immortality of the soul, and have some imperfect ideas of future rewards and punishment. They are universally addicted to various superstitions, and have much to do with witches and evil spirits.* A great proportion of them lead a wandering life, and extremely indolent, dirty and wretched, living on fish, and the flesh of the various wild animals, birds, and even reptiles, which inhabit the forests. "All the Indians of South-America," says Charlevoix, "have hot stomachs," which can digest all sorts of food, and in great quantities, and they are in general "excessively voracious." Their notions of religion and government, with a few exceptions, are very rude. Some nations live compactly in towns, and cultivate the earth, raising, among other productions, wheat which they bruise between stones, and make into cakes. Some nations are represented as dull, cruel and inconstant; others as fierce, cunning and thievish; others as humane, ingenious and hospitable; and in general they are kind and attentive to strangers, so long as they are well used by them; and we seldom read of their being first in a quarrel with those who pass their territories, or sojourn among them. The astonishing success of the Jesuits in converting such multitudes of them to their faith, is a convictive proof of their capacity to receive instruction; of their docility, humanity and friendly dispositions.

* Father *Pastor*, a Jesuit, one day visited one of the old women of the Abipone nation, a reputed witch, and at the point of death, and told her that if she died without baptism her soul would be eternally tormented by the devils. She very calmly answered, that they had been her friends for a long time, and she was therefore sure they would do her no harm. Hist. Par. Vol. I. p. 406.

All accounts agree that the middle and southern parts of South-America, (Chili and part of Paraguay excepted) are very thinly inhabited, being interspersed with extensive ridges of mountains, immense barren plains, and numerous marshes.

As to the second class of American Indians, who formerly inhabited, and who yet inhabit Mexico and the country south of the lakes and west of the Missisippi, and who came over, as we have supposed, from the north-east parts of Asia; they seem, from whatever cause, to be advanced somewhat higher in the scale of human beings, than the South-Americans, if we except the Peruvians, who appear to have made greater progress in civilization than even the Mexicans. Concerning the nations of the vast country of Anahuac or New-Spain, composing a large portion of the second class of the proper Americans, the Abbe Clavigero, has the following observations: "We have had intimate commerce for many years, with the Americans, have lived several years in a seminary destined for their instruction, had some Indians among our pupils, had particular knowledge of many American rectors, many nobles and numerous artists; attentively observed their character, their genius, their dispositions and manner of thinking; and have examined, besides, with the utmost diligence, their ancient history, their religion, their government, their laws and their customs. After such long experience and study of them, from which we imagine ourselves able to decide without danger of erring, we declare that the mental qualities of the American Indians are not in the least degree inferior to those of the Europeans; that they are capable of all, even the most abstract sciences, and that if equal care and pains were taken in their education, we should see rise among them philosophers, mathematicians and divines, who would rival the first in Europe. But it is not possible to make great progress in the sciences, in the midst of a life of misery, servitude and oppression. Their ancient government, their laws and their arts, evidently demonstrate that they suffered no want of genius."

This same author, who appears to be a competent judge, describes the Mexicans as being of a good stature, rather exceeding the middle size; well proportioned in all their limbs; as having a fine olive complexion; narrow foreheads; black eyes; clean, firm, regular, white teeth; thick, black, coarse, glossy hair; thin beards, and generally no hair on their legs, thighs and arms. They are neither very beautiful nor the reverse, but hold a middle place between the extremes. Some of the women are fair and beautiful. Deformities are scarcely known among them. Their senses are very acute, especially that of sight, which they enjoy unimpaired to the greatest age. They are moderate eaters, but much addicted to intemperance in drinking, which, as far as we know, is true of all the American Indians. They are patient of hardships, and grateful for benefits. Good faith is not so much respected by some classes as it deserves to be. They are naturally unsocial, serious and austere, and are more anxious to punish crimes than to reward virtues. Generosity and disinterestedness are striking traits in their character. Their religion is blended with much superstition; and some of the more ignorant are very prone to idolatry.

The respect paid by children to their parents, and by the young to the old, among these people, is highly commendable. Parents are fond of their children. The affection of husbands for their wives is less than the wives for their husbands; and it is very common for men to love their neighbours' wives better than their own. Courage and cowardice seem alternately to affect their minds, and it is difficult to determine which predominates. They can meet dangers in war, and such as proceed from natural causes, with great intrepidity, but are panick-struck by the stern look of a Spaniard.* On the whole, their character, like that of all other nations, is a mixture of good and bad.

Of their morality, the following exhortation of a Mexican to his son, may serve as a specimen: "My son, who art come into the light, from the womb of thy mother, like a chicken from the egg, and, like it, art preparing to fly through the world, we know not how long Heaven will grant to us the enjoyment of that precious gem which we possess in thee: but however short the period, endeavour to live exactly, praying God continually to assist thee. He created thee: thou art his property. He is thy father, and loves thee still more than I do; repose in him thy thoughts, and day and night direct thy sighs to him. Reverence and salute thy elders, and hold no one in contempt. To the poor and distressed be not dumb, but rather use words of comfort. Honour all persons, particularly thy parents, to whom thou owest obedience, respect and service. Guard against imitating the example of those wicked sons, who, like brutes that are deprived of reason, neither reverence their parents, listen to their instruction, nor submit to their correction; because, whoever follows their steps will have an unhappy end, will die in a desperate or sudden manner, or will be killed and devoured by wild beasts.

"Mock not, my son, the aged or the imperfect. Scorn not him whom you see fall into some folly or transgression, nor make him reproaches; but restrain thyself, and beware lest thou fall into the same error which offends thee in another. Go not where thou art not called, nor interfere in that which does not concern thee. Endeavour to manifest thy good breeding in all thy words and actions. In conversation, do not lay thy hands upon another, nor speak too much, nor interrupt or disturb another's discourse. When any one discourses with thee, hear him attentively, and hold thyself in an easy attitude, neither playing with thy feet, nor putting thy mantle to thy mouth, nor spitting too often, nor looking about thee here and there, nor rising up frequently if thou art sitting; for such actions are indications of levity and low breeding." He proceeds to mention several particular vices which are to be avoided, and concludes—"Steal not, nor give thyself to gaming; otherwise thou wilt be a disgrace to thy parents, whom thou oughtest rather to honour for the education they have given thee. If thou wilt be virtuous, thy example will put the wicked to shame. No more, my son; enough hath been said in discharge of the duties of a father. With these counsels I wish to forti-

* This is the effect of their long subjugation to the Spaniards. No people ever fought more bravely or perseveringly than did the Mexicans against the Spaniards under Cortez.

fy thy mind. Refuse them not, nor act in contradiction to them; for on them, thy life, and all thy happiness depend."

Although so much cannot be said with truth, perhaps, in favour of the more northern Indians, whom we have included in the second class, owing to the inferiority of their advantages, yet we are far from thinking them inferior in point of corporeal or mental endowments, to the Mexicans. In their complexion, size and form, they are not in general unlike the Mexicans. In social and domestick virtues, in agriculture, arts and manufactures they are far behind the Mexicans; in their hospitality, equal; and in their eloquence in council, and bravery in war, perhaps superior. Their mode of life, and the state of society among them, afford few objects for the display either of their literary or political abilities.

The following observations are from the pen of Mr. Jefferson. "Of the Indians of South-America," says he, "I know nothing. The Indian of North-America being more within our reach, I can speak of him somewhat from my own knowledge, but more from the information of others better acquainted with him, and on whose truth and judgment I can rely. From these sources I am able to say, in contradiction to this representation, that he is neither more defective in ardour, nor more impotent with his female, than the white, reduced to the same diet and exercise: That he is brave, when an enterprise depends on bravery; education with him making the point of honour consist in the destruction of an enemy by stratagem, and in the preservation of his own person free from injury; or perhaps this is nature, while it is education which teaches us to honour force more than finesse: That he will defend himself against a host of enemies, always choosing to be killed, rather than to surrender, though it be to the whites, who he knows will treat him well: That in other situations also he meets death with more deliberation, and endures tortures with a firmness unknown almost to religious enthusiasm with us: That he is affectionate to his children, careful of them, and indulgent in the extreme: That his affections comprehend his other connections, weakened, as with us, from circle to circle, as they recede from the centre: That his friendships are strong and faithful to the uttermost* extremity: That his sensibility is keen, even the warriors weeping most bitterly on the loss of their children, though in general they endeavour to appear superior to human events: That his vivacity and

* "A remarkable instance of this appeared in the case of the late Col. Byrd, who was sent to the Cherokee nation to transact some business with them. It happened that some of our disorderly people had just killed one or two of that nation. It was therefore proposed, in the council of the Cherokees, that Col. Byrd should be put to death, in revenge for the loss of their countrymen. Among them was a chief called Silouee, who, on some former occasion, had contracted an acquaintance and friendship with Col. Byrd. He came to him every night in his tent, and told him not to be afraid, they should not kill him. After many days deliberation, however, the determination was, contrary to Silouee's expectation, that Byrd should be put to death, and some warriors were dispatched as executioners. Silouee attended them, and when they entered the tent, he threw himself between them and Byrd, and said to the warriors, 'this man is my friend: Before you get at him, you must kill me.' On which they returned, and the council respected the principle so much, as to recede from their determination."

activity of mind is equal to ours in the same situation ; hence his eagerness for hunting, and for games of chance. The women are subjected to unjust drudgery. This, I believe, is the case with every barbarous people. With such, force is law. The stronger sex, therefore, imposes on the weaker. It is civilization alone which replaces women in the enjoyment of their natural equality. That first teaches us to subdue the selfish passions, and to respect those rights in others which we value in ourselves. Were we in equal barbarism, our females would be equal drudges. The man with them is less strong than with us, but their women stronger than ours ; and both for the same obvious reason ; because our man and their woman is habituated to labour, and formed by it. With both races, the sex which is indulged with ease is least athletick. An Indian man is small in the hand and wrist, for the same reason for which a sailor is large and strong in the arms and shoulders, and a porter in the legs and thighs. They raise fewer children than we do.* The causes of this are to be found, not in a difference of nature, but of circumstance. The women very frequently attending the men in their parties of war and hunting, child-bearing becomes extremely inconvenient to them. It is said, therefore, that they have learnt the practice of procuring abortion by the use of some vegetable ; and that it even extends to prevent conception for a considerable time after. During these parties they are exposed to numerous hazards, to excessive exertions, and to the greatest extremities of hunger. Even at their homes, the nation depends for food, through a certain part of every year, on the gleanings of the forest ; that is, they experience a famine once in every year. With all animals, if the female be badly fed, or not fed at all, her young perish ; and if both male and female be reduced to like want, generation becomes less active, less productive. To the obstacles then of want and hazard, which nature has opposed to the multiplication of wild animals, for the purpose of restraining their numbers within certain bounds, those of labour and of voluntary abortion are added with the Indian. No wonder, then, if they multiply less than we do. Where food is regularly supplied, a single farm will shew more of cattle, than a whole country of forest can of buffaloes. The same Indian women, when married to white traders, who feed them and their children plentifully and regularly, who exempt them from excessive drudgery, who keep them stationary and unexposed to accident, produce and raise as many children as the white women. Instances are known, under these circumstances, of their rearing a dozen children. An inhuman practice once prevailed in this country of making slaves of the Indians. It is a fact well known with us, that the Indian women so enslaved, produced and raised as numerous families as either the whites or blacks among whom they lived. It has been said, that Indians have less hair than the whites, except on the head. But this is a fact of which fair proof can scarcely be had. With them it is disgraceful to be hairy on the body. They say it likens them to hogs. They therefore pluck the hair as fast as it appears.

* Their manner of life, in every respect, is unfavourable to the raising of children. The feeble and sickly all perish in infancy or childhood,

But the traders who marry their women, and prevail on them to discontinue this practice, say that nature is the same with them as with the whites. Nor, if the fact be true, is the consequence necessary which has been drawn from it. Negroes have notoriously less hair than the whites; yet they are more ardent. But if cold and moisture be the agents of nature for diminishing the races of animals, how comes she all at once to suspend their operation as to the physical man of the New World, and to let loose their influence on his moral faculties? How has this combination of the elements and other physical causes, so contrary to the enlargement of animal nature in this New World, these obstacles to the developement and formation of great germs, been arrested and suspended, so as to permit the human body to acquire its just dimensions; and by what inconceivable process has their action been directed on his mind alone? To judge of the truth of this, to form a just estimate of their genius and mental powers, more facts are wanting, and great allowance to be made for those circumstances of their situation which call for a display of particular talents only. This done, we shall probably find that they are formed in mind as well as in body, on the same model with the* "Homo sapiens Europæus." The principles of their society forbidding all compulsion, they are to be led to duty and to enterprize by personal influence and persuasion. Hence eloquence in council, bravery and address in war, become the foundations of all consequence with them. To these acquirements, all their faculties are directed. Of their bravery and address in war we have multiplied proofs, because we have been the subjects on which they were exercised. Of their eminence in oratory we have fewer examples, because it is displayed chiefly in their own councils. Some, however, we have of very superior lustre. I may challenge the whole orations of Demosthenes and Cicero, and of any more eminent orator, if Europe has furnished more eminent, to produce a single passage superior to the speech of Logan, a Mingo chief, to Lord Dunmore, when governour of this state (Virginia.) And, as a testimony of their talents in this line, I beg leave to introduce it, first stating the incidents necessary for understanding it. In the spring of the year 1774, a robbery and murder were committed on an inhabitant of the frontiers of Virginia, by two Indians of the Shawanee tribe. The neighbouring whites, according to their custom, undertook to punish this outrage in a summary way. Col. Cresap, a man infamous for the many murders he had committed on those much injured people, collected a party, and proceeded down the Kanhaway in quest of vengeance. Unfortunately a canoe of women and children, with one man only, was seen coming from the opposite shore, unarmed, and unsuspecting any hostile attack from the whites. Cresap and his party concealed themselves on the bank of the river, and the moment the canoe reached the shore, singled out their objects, and, at one fire, killed every person in it. This happened to be the family of Logan, who had long been distinguished as a friend of the whites. This unworthy return provoked his vengeance. He accordingly signalized himself in the war which ensued. In the autumn of the same year, a decisive battle was fought at the mouth of the

* Linn. Syst. Definition of a man.

Great Kanhaway, between the collected forces of the Shawanee, Mingoes and Delawares, and a detachment of the Virginia militia. The Indians were defeated, and sued for peace. Logan, however, disdained to be seen among the suppliants. But, lest the sincerity of a treaty should be distrusted, from which so distinguished a chief absented himself, he sent by a messenger the following speech, to be delivered to Lord Dunmore.

"I appeal to any white man to say, if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him no meat; if ever he came cold and naked, and he clothed him not. During the course of the last long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen pointed, as they passed, and said, 'Logan is the friend of white men.' I had even thought to have lived with you, but for the injuries of one man. Col. Cresap, the last spring, in cold blood, and unprovoked, murdered all the relations of Logan, not sparing even my women and children. There runs not a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have sought it: I have killed many: I have fully glutted my vengeance. For my country I rejoice at the beams of peace. But do not harbour a thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to save his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan?—Note one."*

"Before we condemn the Indians of this continent as wanting genius,† we must consider that letters have not yet been introduced among them. Were we to compare them in their present state, with the Europeans north of the Alps, when the Roman arms and arts first crossed those mountains, the comparison would be unequal, because, at that time, those parts of Europe were swarming with numbers; because numbers produce emulation, and multiply the chances of improvement, and one improvement begets another. Yet I may safely ask, How many good poets, how many able mathematicians, how many great inventors in arts or sciences, had Europe, north of the Alps, then produced? And it was sixteen centuries after this before a Newton could be formed. I do not mean to deny, that there are varieties in the race of man, distinguished by their powers both of body and mind. I believe there are, as I see to be the case in the races of other animals. I only mean to suggest a doubt, whether the bulk and faculties of animals depend on the side of the Atlantick on which their food happens to grow, or which furnishes the elements of which they are compounded? Whether nature has enlisted herself as a Cis or Trans-Atlantick partisan."‡

No people in the world have higher notions of military honour than the Indians. The fortitude, the calmness and even exultation which they manifest while under the extremest torture, is owing to

* The truth of the foregoing story has been denied with confidence by a relation of Col. Cresap. But Mr. Jefferson, in an able reply, appears to have established the most material facts. Hendrick, the celebrated Mohawk chief, used to say that the eloquence of Logan surpassed all their former conceptions of the eloquence of man.

† No people have a keener or more sarcastick wit than the Indians. In proof, many specimens might be given.

‡ Notes on Virginia, p. 96—107. English Edit. 1787.

their education, to their exalted ideas of military glory, and their rude notions of future happiness, which they believe they shall forfeit by the least manifestation of fear, or uneasiness, under their sufferings. They are as bitter and determined in their resentments as they are sincere in their friendships, and often pursue their enemies several hundred miles through the woods, surmounting every difficulty, in order to be revenged.* In their publick councils they observe the greatest decorum. In the foremost rank sit the old men, who are the counsellors, then the warriors, and next the women and children. As they keep no records, it is the business of the women to notice every thing that passes, to imprint it on their memories, and tell it to their children. They are, in short, the records of the council; and, with surprising exactness, preserve the stipulation of treaties entered into a hundred years back. Their kindness and hospitality is scarcely equalled by any civilized nation. Their politeness in conversation is even carried to excess, since it does not allow them to contradict any thing that is asserted in their presence. Dr. Franklin says, "We call them savages, because their manners differ from ours, which we think the perfection of civility; they think the same of theirs."

Society among the Indians, we are sorry to say, has not been improved, but in most instances corrupted, by their intercourse with Europeans. It is believed by many, that the wars with them gener-

* The following anecdote of an Algonquin woman, we find adduced as a remarkable proof of their innate thirst of blood. That nation being at war with the Iroquois, she happened to be taken prisoner, and was carried to one of the villages belonging to them. Here she was stripped naked, and her hands and feet bound with ropes in one of their cabins. In this condition she remained ten days, the savages sleeping round her every night. The eleventh night, while they were asleep, she found means to disengage one of her hands, with which she immediately freed herself from the ropes, and went to the door. Though she had now an opportunity of escaping unperceived, her revengeful temper could not let slip so favourable an opportunity of killing one of her enemies. The attempt was manifestly at the hazard of her own life; yet, snatching up a hatchet, she killed the savage that lay next her; and springing out of the cabin, concealed herself in a hollow tree which she had observed the day before. The groans of the dying person soon alarmed the other savages, and the young ones immediately set out in pursuit of her. Perceiving from her tree, that they all directed their course one way, and that no savage was near her, she left her sanctuary, and, flying by an opposite direction, ran into a forest without being perceived. The second day after this happened, her footsteps were discovered; and they pursued her with such expedition, that the third day she discovered her enemies at her heels. Upon this she threw herself into a pond of water; and, diving among some weeds and bulrushes, she could just breathe above water without being perceived. Her pursuers, after making the most diligent search, were forced to return. For 35 days this woman held on her course through woods and deserts, without any other sustenance than roots and wild berries. When she came to the river St. Lawrence, she made with her own hands a kind of wicker raft, on which she crossed it. As she went by the French fort Trois Rivieres, without well knowing where she was, she perceived a canoe full of savages; and fearing they might be Iroquois, ran again into the woods, where she remained till sunset.—Continuing her course soon after, she saw Trois Rivieres; and was then discovered by a party whom she knew to be Hurons, a nation in alliance with the Algonquins. She then squatted down behind a bush, calling out to them that she was not in a condition to be seen, because she was naked. They immediately threw her a blanket, and then conducted her to the fort, where she recounted her story.

ally originate in the injustice, avarice and pride of their opposers and vanquishers. None, however, can justify their mode of carrying on a war when once it has commenced. If the guilty or those who should conceal and defend the guilty, were the sole objects of their vengeance, we could not condemn them. But when those who never did or meant them an injury; when defenceless women and children, and even babes, are made the victims of their shocking barbarity, we cannot but deeply lament their want of that humanity, and just discrimination between the innocent and the guilty, which are the peculiar fruits of civilization. We wish we could say, that they never had any examples of indiscriminate barbarity from their neighbours, who ought to have taught them better.

The Indians many times treat their prisoners in the most cruel and barbarous manner; but they often use them with the greatest humanity, feeding and clothing them, even better than themselves; and adopting them as fathers, mothers, sons and daughters, brothers and sisters, and treating them in all respects as such. There have been instances of whites, thus adopted while young, who have become Chiefs of the nations that adopted them. Compulsion has frequently been found necessary to separate from their Indian relations those white prisoners who have resided a few years with them; and many men and women, who have been ransomed and delivered up by the Indians to their white parents or relations, have returned back to their Indian friends, and of choice, married and settled among them.

A late enterprising traveller* into the country west of the Missisippi, who took his course west-south-west from the posts on the Lakes, and penetrated to the head of the Missouri, and thence due west till he arrived within about 500 miles of the Pacifick ocean, informs us that beyond the Missouri, he met with many powerful nations of Indians, who were in general courteous and hospitable. The nations which he visited to the westward appeared to be a polished, civilized people, having regularly built towns, and enjoying a state of society not far removed from the European, and in order to be perfectly equal, wanting only the use of iron and steel. Their clothing is of skins, cut in an elegant manner, and in many respects preferable to the garments in use among the whites.† Adjacent to these nations is a vast range of mountains, which may be called the *Allegany* of the western parts of America, and serves as a barrier against the too frequent incursions of the coast Indians, who, Mr. Stewart relates, appear to be inveterate enemies to the tribes eastward of the mountains.

The Indians are unacquainted with letters, and their history is preserved in some few instances by hieroglyphick paintings, and sculpture, but principally by tradition. They often discover great ingenuity in communicating information to the absent. Of the following instance of Indian hieroglyphick writing, Dr. Mitchill, who in a very obliging manner communicated it to the author, was an eye witness.

* Mr. Stewart.

† This information of Mr. Stewart's serves to confirm the accounts given of the kingdom of Tollan, by the Spaniards, who journeyed far north in 1606, and of whose discoveries we have already given an account in page 91.

Dr. Mitchill, in company with several other gentlemen, as they were proceeding up Onondago river, to an Indian treaty, overtook several canoes of Seneca Indians, who encamped with them at night near Fort Brewington ; and the next day proving rainy, they continued in company till the weather became so favourable as to permit them to cross the Oneida Lake. During the storm, one of the Indian canoes stove, and became unfit for service. The commissioners took the crew on board their boat, and carried them to a landing place some distance up Wood Creek. Here one of them, before he left the water, took the following method to let his companions, who were left behind, know when and whither they had proceeded. He took a piece of wood, and hewed it flat and smooth, and then raked his fire for a suitable coal, with which he rudely delineated, on the slab, the figure of an Indian, carrying a gun reversed upon his shoulder. In front of him he drew a crooked line, which reached to a man with a long coat and cocked hat, and holding a cane in his hand ; and behind him a framed house. He then took a straight pole, and tied some weeds and grass upon one end of it, and fixed the other in the earth, in such a manner, that, in the position the sun then was, which was six o'clock in the morning, it cast no shadow ; or, in other words, he pointed it exactly towards the sun. The meaning of all was this —" Susquewewah (the name of the Indian) left this spot at six o'clock in the morning, or when the sun was in the place where the pole pointed, and has proceeded up Wood Creek, (which is remarkably crooked) to the settlement where the Commissioners of the State of New-York are assembled to hold a treaty with the Indians."—All these *insignia* were arranged so conspicuously on the margin of the creek, that his companions behind could scarcely avoid observing them as they passed.

In the interior parts of America various monuments of art have been found, which discover greater ingenuity in their construction, than the present generation of Indians appear to possess. Two miles west of the Genessee river, in the State of New-York, we have been informed,* are the remains of an ancient Indian Fort. It encloses about 4 acres ; is encompassed with a ditch 8 feet wide, and 5 or 6 feet deep ; and has six gate ways. Its form is circular, except on one part, which is defended by nature with a high bank, at the foot of which is a fine stream of water ; there is an appearance of there having been a deep covered way through the middle of the bank, to the water. Some of the trees, on the bank and in the ditch, look as if they had been growing 150 or 200 years. Half a mile south, on an eminence, are the ruins of another Indian fortified town, of smaller dimensions, and more advantageously situated for defence. The old Indians say these forts were built before the Senakas were admitted into confederacy with the Mohawks, Onondagos, Oneidas, and Cayogas, and while the Senakas were at war with the Mississauges, and other Indians, on the great Lakes, which Mr. Kirkland conjectures, from various accounts he received from different tribes, was at least 300 years ago.

* By the Rev. Mr. Kirkland, Missionary to the Six Nations, who visited this Fort, in 1788.

A few miles from the above mentioned forts, at a place which the Senakas call Tegateenedaghque, signifying a town with a fort at each end, are the remains of two other forts, constructed nearly in the same form, with six gates, a ditch, a stream of water, and a covered way to it. Near the northern fort, are the ruins of a funeral pile, 6 feet high, and 20 or 30 feet diameter, where were buried 800 Indians, who, according to tradition, fell in a famous battle fought at this place, between the Senakas, who were the victors, and the western Indians. The weapons of war then in use were bows and arrows; the spear or javelin pointed with bone; and the war-club, or death-mail. When the former sort of weapons were expended, they came to close engagement with the latter. The warriors wore a short jacket made of willow sticks or of moose wood, laced tight round their bodies. On their heads they wore a cap of the same kind, but commonly wove double, the better to secure them against a mortal blow from the death-mall. The battle above mentioned was fought, some of the Indians say, 300, some 400, and some 500 lives or ages ago, and long before the arrival of the Europeans. They commonly reckon a life or an age, one hundred winters or colds.

Mr. Kirkland observes, that there are similar vestiges of ancient fortified towns throughout the extensive territories of the Six Nations, and, by Indian report, in various other parts, and particularly on a branch of the Delaware river, which appear to be very ancient. He adds, "I find, on enquiring, that a tradition prevails among the Indians in general, that all Indians came from the west." This is a confirmation of the opinion that this second class of Indians, of whom we have been speaking, and of which the Six Nations make a part, came over from the north-east of Asia, to the north-west coast of America, whence they migrated south towards Mexico, and eastward into the present territory of the United States.

Judging of the ancient Indians from the traditionary accounts of them, and the ruins we have been describing, we are led to conceive of them as a more civilized, ingenious, and warlike people, than their descendants at the present time. We are at a loss for the causes of their degeneracy, unless we mention as such the introduction of spirituous liquors among them, a deep sense of their inferiority in military skill to the white people, and their chagrin and broken-heartedness at the loss of their lands, and being forced to give place to their supposed enemies.

The third class of American Indians, viz. those who inhabit Esquimaux, Labrador, and the countries around, are much less known than either of the aforementioned classes. Those who profess to be best acquainted with them say, they differ in size and shape from the other American Indians, and resemble the Laplanders and Samoeids of Europe, from whom, it is conjectured, they descended.

The Esquimaux, according to Mr. Pennant, are distinguished from the tribes south of them, chiefly by their dress, their canoes, and their instruments of chase. He divides them into two varieties. About Prince William's Sound they are of the largest size. As you advance northward they decrease in height, till they dwindle into the dwarfish tribes which occupy some of the coasts of the Icy sea,

and the maritime parts of Hudson's Bay, of Greenland and Labrador. Their dwarfishness is doubtless occasioned by the scantiness of their provisions, and the severity of their climate. Beyond the 67th deg. N. lat. according to Capt. Ellis's account, there are no inhabitants. The Arctick countries in America, Asia and Greenland, if inhabited at all, have very few inhabitants; and those are of the dwarfish kind, scattered on the banks of rivers, lakes and seas, and subsist miserably upon fish and the flesh of those animals which inhabit those frozen regions, with the skins of which they clothe themselves.

Mr. Crantz gives it as his opinion, that the Esquimaux came originally from the north-east regions of Great Tartary, between the Icy sea and Mungalia; because he observes a greater affinity between them and the Kalmucks, Tunguses and Kamtschadales, who inhabit those regions, than between them and the Laplanders, Samoeids and Ostiaks, who inhabit the north-west parts of Europe, whence, it has generally been conjectured, the Esquimaux migrated. It is his opinion also, that Greenland was settled in the 14th century, from the north-eastern parts of America; for till that period, Greenland appears not to have had any inhabitants. The route which the first migrants took, he supposes, was first into Tartary, after the dispersion of the nations; thence into Kamtschatka; thence across the strait which separates the two continents; whence they spread themselves, unmolested, into the uninhabited countries round Hudson's Bay, and down as far south as Canada. And here they were found in the 11th century, by the Norwegians in their Wineland. Afterwards these more southerly regions were conquered by the more numerous and powerful tribes south of the lakes, and the Esquimaux were forced to retire as far north as the 60th deg. N. lat. Here Capt. Ellis found the Esquimaux, in his voyage to Hudson's Bay, and discovered that they had the same aspect, dress, boats, hunting and fishing implements, habitations, manners and usages, as the Greenlanders.* They are often pursued and hunted by the other Indians, who live about the south and west shores of Hudson's Bay, and who appear to be quite a different people.

The newly discovered American Indians, about Nootka Sound, disguise themselves after the manner of the ancient Scythians, in dresses made of the skins of wolves and other wild beasts, and wear even the heads fitted to their own. These habits they use in the chase to deceive the animals of the field.

* One of the Moravian brethren, who understood the Greenland language, made a voyage to Labrador in 1764. On the fourth of September he met about 200 Indians. The first that he spoke to behaved very wild and shy; but when the Indian saw him clad in his own dress, and heard him speak in his own language, he called out to the others with shouts of joy, "Our friend is come." They conducted him further up, to their families; and though other Europeans think they risk their lives in being alone with them, they shewed him all imaginable friendship, and rejoiced when he gave them hopes of visiting them the next year; which he did, in company with the Rev. Mr. Drachart, a gentleman well skilled in the Greenland language. He found that the two languages did not differ so much as the high and low Dutch; that their stature, way of living, dress, tents, darts and boats were the same as those of the Greenlanders.

Concerning the religion of the Indians much has been said, and much that has no foundation. In general, we observe, that they all have an idea of a Supreme Being, whom they worship under different names, and with a great variety of superstitious rites and ceremonies. Some, particularly the nations of the Algonquin language, call their Supreme God, the *Great Hare;* some, *Michalou;* and others, *Atahocan.* The Being opposed to this *First Spirit,* whom they consider as the Creator and Governour of the world, they style the *Great Tiger.*

The name of the Huron's Supreme God, or, more properly, their God of War, is *Areskoui;* of the Iroquois, *Agreskouse;* but most of the nations south of the Lakes, as far as Louisiana, denominate their Supreme God, the *Great,* the *Good,* or the *Grand Spirit,* to whom they ascribe a kind of omnipresence, and whom they invoke as their guardian. To their evil genii they never address themselves, except to entreat them not to do them any injury; and to appease their wrath, they often sacrifice to them. Mr. Kirkland mentions a small lake, which he visited, situated at the foot of a precipice, nearly 50 feet perpendicular height, in the territory of the Six Nations, in which, the old Indians affirm, resided formerly a demon in the shape of a dragon, and that he had been seen frequently to disgorge balls of liquid fire. To appease his wrath, they said, many a sacrifice of tobacco had been made at the lake, by the fathers.

A description of the North-West Coast of America, and the adjacent islands, with a summary account of the latest discoveries in that quarter, both by travellers and voyagers, the reader will find at the close of this volume.

A SUMMARY ACCOUNT OF THE FIRST DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT OF NORTH-AMERICA:

ARRANGED IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER.

NORTH-AMERICA was discovered in the reign of Henry VII. a period when the arts and sciences had made very considerable progress in Europe. Many of the first adventurers were men of genius and learning, and were careful to preserve authentick records of such of their proceedings as would be interesting to posterity. These records afford ample documents for American historians. Perhaps no nation on the globe can trace the history of their origin and progress with so much precision, as the inhabitants of North-America; particularly that part of them who inhabit the territory of the United States.

The fame which Columbus had acquired by his first discoveries on this western continent, spread through Europe, and inspired
1495. many with the spirit of enterprize. As early as 1495, four years only after the first discovery of America, John Cabot, a

Venetian, obtained a grant or commission from Henry VII. to discover unknown lands and annex them to the crown.*

In the spring of 1496, he sailed from England with two ships, carrying with him his three sons. In his voyage, which was intended for China, he fell in with the north side of Terra Labrador, and coasted northerly as far as the 67th degree of latitude.

1497.] The next year he made a second voyage to America with his son Sebastian, who afterwards proceeded in the discoveries which his father had begun. On the 24th of June he discovered Bonavista, on the north-east side of Newfoundland. Before his return, he traversed the coast from Davis's straits to Cape Florida.

1502.] Sebastian Cabot was this year at Newfoundland; and on his return, carried three of the natives of that island to King Henry VII.

1513.] In the spring of 1513, John Ponce sailed from Porto Rico northerly, and discovered the continent in 30° 8′ north latitude. He landed in April, a season when the country around was covered with verdure, and in full bloom. This circumstance induced him to call the country FLORIDA, which for many years, was the common name for North and South-America.

1516.] In 1516, Sir Sebastian Cabot and Sir Thomas Pert explored the coast as far as Brazil in South-America.

This vast extent of country, the coast of which was thus explored, remained unclaimed and unsettled by any European power, (except by the Spaniards in South-America) for almost a century from the time of its discovery.

1524.] It was not till the year 1524 that France attempted discoveries on the American coast. Stimulated by his enterprizing neighbours, Francis I. who possessed a great and active mind, sent John Verrazano, a Florentine, to America, for the purpose of making discoveries. He traversed the coast from latitude 28° to 50° north. In a second voyage, sometime after, he was lost.

1525.] The next year Stephen Gomez, the first Spaniard who came upon the American coast for discovery, sailed from Groyn in Spain, to Cuba and Florida, thence northward to Cape Razo or Race, in latitude 46° north, in search of a northern passage to the East-Indies.

1528.] Pamphilo de Narvaez, in the service of Spain, sailed from Cuba with 400 men to conquer Florida; but he was wrecked on the coast by a tempest, and his purpose defeated.

1534.] In the spring of 1534, by the direction of Francis I. a fleet was fitted out at St. Malo's in France, with design to make discoveries in America. The command of this fleet was given to James Cartier.† He arrived at Newfoundland in May of this year. Thence he sailed northerly; and on the day of the festival of St. Lawrence, he

* See Hazard's "Historical Collections," Vol. I. page 9, where this grant is recited at large.

† In Hazard's Historical Collections, Vol. I. page 19, is a commission from Francis I. to James Cartier or Quartier, for making an establishment in Canada, dated Oct. 17, 1540. Probably this commission was given him in consequence of his former discoveries.

found himself in about lat. 48° 30′ north, in the midst of a broad gulf, which he named St. Lawrence. He gave the same name to the river which empties into it. In this voyage, he sailed as far north as latitude 51°, expecting in vain to find a passage to China.

1535.] The next year he sailed up the river St. Lawrence 300 leagues, to the great and swift *Fall*. He called the country New-France; built a fort near the west end of the Isle of Orleans, which he called *Port de St. Croix*, in which he spent the winter, and returned in the following spring to France, carrying with him some of the natives.

1539.] On the 12th of May, 1539, Ferdinand de Soto, with 900 men, besides seamen, sailed from Cuba, having for his object the conquest of Florida. On the 30th of May he arrived at Spirito Santo, from whence he travelled northward to the Chickasaw country, in about latitude 35 or 36°. He died, after having spent three years in this country, and was buried on the bank of Missisippi River, May 1542, aged 42 years. Alverdo succeeded him.

1540.] Cartier made a third voyage to Canada, built a fort and begun a settlement in 1541 or 1542 which he called *Charlebourg*, four leagues above Port de St. Croix. He soon after broke up the settlement and sailed to Newfoundland.

1542.] In 1542, Francis la Roche, Lord Robewell or Roberval, was sent to Canada, by the French king, with three ships and 200 men, women and children. They wintered here in a fort which they had built, and returned in the spring. About the year 1550 a large number of adventurers sailed for Canada, but were never after heard of. In 1598, the King of France commissioned the Marquis de la Roche to conquer Canada, and other countries not possessed by any Christian Prince. We do not learn, however, that la Roche ever attempted to execute his commission, or that any further attempts were made to settle Canada during this century.

During the succeeding 30 years, the passion for discovery took another direction. Adventurers from Europe were seeking a passage to India and China by the N. E. but were prevented from accomplishing their views by the cold and ice of those inhospitable regions. In this interval, the French of Brittany, the Spaniards of Biscay, and the Portuguese, enjoyed the fishery on the banks of Newfoundland, without interruption. [*Belknap.*]

January 6, 1548-49.] This year King Edward VI. granted a pension for life to Sebastian Cabot, in consideration of the important services he had rendered to the kingdom by his discoveries in America.* Very respectable descendants of the Cabot family now live in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

1562.] The Admiral of France, Chatillon, early in this year, sent out a fleet under the command of John Ribalt. He arrived at Cape Francis on the coast of Florida, near which, on the first of May, he discovered and entered a river which he called May River. It is more than probable that this river is the same which we now call St.

* Hazard's Hist. Coll. Vol. I. page 23. Hackluyt calls this "The large pension granted by King Edward VI. to Sebastian Cabot, constituting him grand pilot of England."

Mary's, which forms a part of the southern boundary of the United States. As he coasted northward he discovered eight other rivers, one of which he called Port Royal, and sailed up it several leagues. On one of the rivers he built a fort and called it *Charles*, in which he left a colony under the direction of Captain Albert. The se-
1564. verity of Albert's measures excited a mutiny, in which, to the ruin of the colony, he was slain. Two years after, Chatillon sent Rene Laudonier with three ships to Florida. In June he arrived at the river *May*, on which he built a fort, and, in honour to his king, Charles IX. he called it CAROLINA.

In August, this year, Capt. Ribalt arrived at Florida the second time, with a fleet of seven vessels, to recruit the colony, which, two years before, he had left under the direction of the unfortunate Capt. Albert.

The September following, Pedro Melandes, with six Spanish ships, pursued Ribalt up the river on which he had settled, and overpowering him in numbers, cruelly massacred him and his whole company. Melandes, having in this way taken possession of the country, built three forts, and left them garrisoned with 1200 soldiers. Laudonier and his colony on May River, receiving information of the fate of Ribalt, took the alarm and escaped to France.

1567.] A fleet of three ships was this year sent from France to Florida, under the command of Dominique de Gourges. The object of this expedition was to dispossess the Spaniards of that part of Florida which they had cruelly and unjustifiably seized three
1568. years before. He arrived on the coast of Florida, April, 1568, and soon after made a successful attack upon the forts. The recent cruelty of Melandes and his company excited revenge in the breast of Gourges, and roused the unjustifiable principle of retaliation. He took the forts; put most of the Spaniards to the sword; and, having burned and demolished all their fortresses, returned to France. During the 50 years next after this event, the French enterprised no settlements in America.

1576.] All attempts to find a N. E. passage to India being frustrated, Capt. Frobisher was sent this year to find out a N. W. passage to that country. The first land which he made on the coast was a Cape, which, in honour to the queen, he called *Queen Elizabeth's Foreland*. In coasting northerly he discovered the straits which bear his name, and which are now impassable by reason of fixed ice. He prosecuted his search for a passage into the Western Ocean, till he was prevented by the ice, and then returned to England.* The two following years he made a second and third voyage, but produced no material discovery.

Sir Francis Drake, being on a cruise against the Spaniards in the South Sea, landed on the continent of America, northward of California, took possession of a harbour, and called the circumjacent country, between lat. 38° and 42°, *New-Albion*, which name it has ever since retained.

* Hazard's Historical Collections, Vol. I. page 23.

1579.] In 1579, Sir Humphry Gilbert obtained a patent from queen Elizabeth, for lands not yet possessed by any Christian Prince, provided he would take possession within six years. With
1583. this encouragement he sailed to Newfoundland, and on the first of August, 1583, anchored in Conception Bay. He took formal possession of the Continent of North-America for the crown of England. In pursuing his discoveries he lost one of his ships on the shoals of Sable, and on his return home, a storm overtook him, in which he was unfortunately lost, and the intended settlement was prevented.

1584.] This year two patents were granted by queen Elizabeth, one to Adrian Gilbert, (Feb. 6) the other to Sir Walter Raleigh (March 25) for lands not possessed by any Christian Prince.* By the direction of Sir Walter, two ships were fitted and sent out under the command of Philip Amidas, and Arthur Barlow, with 107 passengers. In June, 1585, they arrived on the coast, and anchored in a harbour seven leagues west of the Roanoke. This colony returned to England with Sir Francis Drake, in June 1586. On the thirteenth of July, they, in a formal manner, took possession of the country, and, in honour of their virgin queen Elizabeth, they called it *Virginia*. Till this time the country was known by the general name of *Florida*. After this Virginia became a common name for all North-America.

1586.] This year, Sir Walter Raleigh sent Sir Richard Grenville to America, with seven ships. He arrived at Wococon harbour in June. Having stationed a colony of more than a hundred people at Roanoke, under the direction of Capt. Ralph Lane, he coasted north-easterly as far as Chesapeak Bay, and returned to England.

The colony under Capt. Lane endured extreme hardships, and must have perished, had not Sir Francis Drake fortunately returned to Virginia, and carried them to England, after having made several conquests for the queen in the West-Indies and other places.

A fortnight after, Sir Richard Grenville arrived with new recruits; and although he did not find the colony which he had before left, and knew not but they had perished, he had the rashness to leave 50 men at the same place.

1587.] The year following, Sir Walter sent another company to Virginia, under governour White, with a charter and twelve assistants. In July he arrived at Roanoke. Not one of the second company remained. He determined however to risk a *third* colony. Accordingly he left 115 people at the old settlement, and returned to England.

This year, (Aug. 13) *Manteo* was baptized in Virginia. He was the first native Indian who received that ordinance in that part of America. He, with Towaye, another Indian, had visited England, and returned home to Virginia with the colony. On the 18th of August, Mrs. Dare was delivered of a daughter, whom she called VIRGINIA. She was born at Roanoke, and was the first English child that was born in North-America.

* Hazard's Hist. Coll. Vol. I. page 28 and 33.

1590.] In the year 1590, Governour White came over to Virginia with supplies and recruits for his colony; but to his great grief, not a man was to be found. They had all miserably famished with hunger, or were massacred by the Indians.

1592.] Juan de Fuca, a Greek, in the service of Spain, was sent by the viceroy of Mexico, to discover a N. W. passage, by exploring the *western* side of the American continent. He discovered a strait which bears his name in the 48th degree of N. lat. and supposed it to be the long desired passage. [*Purchas.—Belknap.*]

1598.] De la Loche obtained from Henry IV. of France, a commission to conquer Canada and other countries, not possessed by any Christian Prince. He sailed from France with a company of *convicts* from the prisons; landed 40 on the *Isle of Sable*. Seven years after, the survivors, being 12 in number, were taken off and carried home to France; Henry pardoned them, and gave them 50 crowns each as a recompense for their sufferings. [*Purchas.—Forster.*]

1602.] In the spring of this year, Bartholomew Gosnold, with 32 persons, made a voyage to North-Virginia, and discovered and gave names to Cape Cod, Martha's Vineyard and Elizabeth Islands, and to Dover Cliff. Elizabeth Island was the place which they fixed for their first settlement. But the courage of those who were to have tarried failing, they all went on board, and returned to England. All the attempts to settle this continent which were made by the Dutch, French and English, from its discovery to the present time, a period of 110 years, proved ineffectual. The Spaniards only, of all the European nations, had been successful. There is no account of there having been one European family, at this time, in all the vast extent of coast from Florida to Greenland.

1603.] Martin Pring and William Brown were this year sent by Sir Walter Raleigh, with two small vessels, to make discoveries in North-Virginia. They came upon the coast, which was broken with a multitude of islands, in latitude 43° 30′ north. They coasted southward to Cape Cod Bay; thence round the Cape into a commodious harbour in latitude 41° 25′, where they went ashore and tarried seven weeks, during which time they loaded one of their vessels with sassafras, and returned to England.

Bartholomew Gilbert, in a voyage to South-Virginia, in search of the third colony which had been left there by Governour White, in 1587, having touched at several of the West-India islands, landed near Chesapeak Bay, where, in a skirmish with the Indians, he and four of his men were unfortunately slain. The rest, without any further search for the colony, returned to England.

France, being at this time in a state of tranquillity, in consequence of the edict of Nantz in favour of the Protestants, passed by Henry IV. (April 1598) and of the peace with Philip, King of Spain and Portugal, was induced to pursue her discoveries in America. Accordingly, the King signed a patent* in favour of De Mons or Monts, (November 8, 1603) of all the country from the 40th to the 46th de-

* Hist. Coll. Vol. I. p. 45.

gree of north latitude, under the name of *Acadia*. The next
1604. year De Mons ranged the coast from St. Lawrence to Cape Sable, and round to Cape Cod, and began plantations at Port Royal, St. John's and St. Croix, in the bay of Funda.

1605.] In May, 1605, George's Island and Pentecost Harbour were discovered by Capt. George Weymouth. In May he entered a large river in latitude 43° 20′, (variation 11° 15′ west) supposed to be Kennebeck or Penobscot. Capt. Weymouth carried with him to England five of the natives, whom he delivered to Sir Ferdinando Gourges, then Governour of Plymouth.

1606.] April 10th, this year, James I. by patent,* divided Virginia into two colonies. The *southern*, included all lands between the 34th and 41st degrees of north latitude. This was styled the *first colony*, under the name of South-Virginia, and was granted to the London Company. The *northern*, called the second colony, and known by the general name of North-Virginia, included all lands between the 38th and 45th degrees north latitude, and was granted to the Plymouth Company. Each of these colonies had a council of thirteen men to govern them. To prevent disputes about territory, the colony which should last place themselves was prohibited to plant within a hundred miles of the other. There appears to be an inconsistency in these grants, as the lands lying between the 38th and 41st degrees are covered by both patents.

Both the London and Plymouth companies enterprized settlements within the limits of their respective grants: With what success will now be mentioned.

Mr. Piercy, brother to the Earl of Northumberland, in the service of the London Company, went over with a colony to Virginia, and discovered Powhatan, now James River. In the mean time the Plymouth company sent Capt. Henry Challone, in a vessel of fifty-five tons, to plant a colony in North-Virginia; but in his voyage he was taken by a Spanish fleet and carried to Spain.

1607.] Champlain, by order of De Mons, sailed up the river Canada, (now St. Lawrence) and fortified *Quebeck*, the name of a strait in the river.

The London company, in the spring of this year, sent Capt. Christopher Newport, with three vessels, to South-Virginia. On the 26th of April he entered Chesapeak Bay, and landed, and soon after gave to the most southern point the name of *Cape Henry*, which
May 13. it still retains. Having elected Mr. Edward Wingfield president for the year, they next day landed all their men, and began a settlement on James River, at a place which
June 22. they called James-Town. This is the first town that was settled by the English in North-America. The June following, Capt. Newport sailed for England, leaving with the president one hundred and four persons.

August 22.] In August died Capt. Bartholomew Gosnold, the first projector of this settlement, and one of the council. The following winter James-Town was burnt.

* Hist. Coll. Vol. I. p. 50.

During this time, the Plymouth company fitted out two ships under the command of Admiral Rawley Gilbert. They sailed for North-Virginia on the 31st of May, with one hundred planters, and Capt. George Popham for their president. They arrived in August, and settled about nine or ten leagues to the southward of the mouth of Sagadahok river. A great part of the colony, however, disheartened by the severity of the winter, returned to England in December, leaving their president, Capt. Popham, with only forty-five men.

It was in the fall of this year that the famous Mr. Robinson, with part of his congregation, who afterwards settled at Plymouth in New-England, removed from the north of England to Holland, to avoid the cruelties of persecution, and for the sake of enjoying "purity of worship and liberty of conscience."

This year a small company of merchants at Dieppe and St. Malo's founded Quebeck; or rather, the colony which they sent, built a few huts there, which did not take the form of a town until the reign of Lewis XIV.

1608.] Sagadahok colony suffered incredible hardships after the departure of their friends in December. In the depth of winter, which was extremely cold, their storehouse caught fire and was consumed, with most of their provisions and lodgings. Their misfortunes were increased soon after, by the death of their president. Rawley Gilbert was appointed to succeed him.

Lord Chief Justice Popham made every exertion to keep this colony alive, by repeatedly sending them supplies. But the circumstance of his death, which happened this year, together with that of president Gilbert's being called to England to settle his affairs, broke up the colony, and they all returned with him to England.

The unfavourable reports, which these first unfortunate adventurers propagated respecting the country, prevented any further attempts to settle North-Virginia for several years after.

1609.] The London company, last year, sent Capt. Nelson, with two ships and one hundred and twenty persons, to James-Town; and this year, Capt. John Smith, afterwards president, arrived on the coast of South-Virginia, and by sailing up a number of the rivers, discovered the interior country. In September, Capt. Newport arrived with seventy persons, which increased the colony to two hundred souls.

Mr. Robinson and his congregation, who had settled at Amsterdam, removed this year to Leyden: where they remained more than 11 years, till a part of them came over to New-England.

The council for South-Virginia having resigned their old commission, requested and obtained a new one;* in consequence of which, they appointed Sir Thomas West, Lord De la War, general of the colony; Sir Thomas Gates his lieutenant; Sir George Somers Admiral; Sir Thomas Dale high marshal; Sir Ferdinand Wainman general of the horse; and Capt. Newport Vice-Admiral.

* The second Charter of Virginia, bears date May 23, 1609. Hist. Coll. Vol. I. page 58.

June 8.] In June Sir Thomas Gates, Admiral Newport and Sir George Somers, with seven ships, a ketch and a pinnace, having five hundred souls on board, men, women and children, sailed *July* 24. from Falmouth for South-Virginia. In crossing the Bahama Gulf, on the 24th of July, the fleet was overtaken by a violent storm, and separated. Four days after, Sir George Somers ran his vessel ashore on one of the Bermuda Islands, which, from this circumstance, have been called the Somers Islands. The people on board, one hundred and fifty in number, all got safe on shore; and there remained until the following May. The remainder of the fleet arrived at Virginia in August. The colony was now increased to five hundred men. Capt. Smith, then president, a little before the arrival of the fleet, had been very badly burnt by means of some powder which had accidentally caught fire. This unfortunate circumstance, together with the opposition he met with from those who had lately arrived, induced him to leave the colony and return to England; which he accordingly did the last of September. Francis West, his successor in office, soon followed him, and George Piercy was elected president.

1610.] The year following, the South-Virginia or London company sealed a patent to Lord De la War, constituting him Governour and Captain-General of South-Virginia. He soon after embarked for America, with Capt. Argal and one hundred and fifty men, in three ships.

The unfortunate people, who, the year before, had been shipwrecked on the Bermuda Islands, had employed themselves during the winter and spring, under the direction of Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers and Admiral Newport, in building a sloop to transport themselves to the continent. They embarked for Virginia on the 10th of May with about one hundred and fifty persons on board, leaving two of their men behind, who chose to stay, and landed at James-Town on the 23d of the same month. Finding the colony, which at the time of Capt. Smith's departure, consisted of five hundred souls, now reduced to sixty, and those few in a distressed and wretched situation, they, with one voice, resolved to return to England; and for this purpose, on the 7th of June, the whole colony repaired on board their vessels, broke up the settlement, and sailed down the river on their way to their native country.

Fortunately, Lord De la War, who had embarked for James-Town the March before, met them the day after they sailed, and persuaded them to return with him to James-Town, where they arrived and landed the 10th of June. The government of the colony, of right, devolved upon Lord De la War. From this time we may date the effectual settlement of Virginia. Its history, from this period, will be given in its proper place.

In 1611, Sir Thomas Dale reinforced the colony of South-Virginia with 300 people, and Sir Thomas Gates with 300 more, furnishing them with cattle and swine.

As early as the years 1607 and 1608, Henry Hudson, an Englishman, under a commission from king James, in the employ of the East-India company, made several voyages for the discovery of a north-

west passage to the East-Indies. In 1609, upon some misunderstanding, he engaged in the Dutch service, in the prosecution of the same design, and on his return ranged along the sea-coast of what has since been called New-England, (which three years before was granted by King James to his English subjects, the Plymouth Company) and entered Hudson's river, giving it his own name. He ascended this river in his boat as far as what has since been called Aurania or Albany. In 1613, the Dutch West-India Company sent some persons to this river to trade with the Indians; and as early as 1623, the Dutch had a trading house on Connecticut River. In consequence of these discoveries and settlements, the Dutch claimed all the country extending from Cape Cod to Cape Henlopen along the sea-coast, and as far back into the country as any of the rivers within those limits extend. But their claim has been disputed. This extensive country the Dutch called *New-Netherlands*, and in 1614 the States General granted a patent to sundry merchants for an exclusive trade on Hudson's river, who the same year, built a fort on the west side near Albany. From this time we may date the settlement of New-York, the history of which will be annexed to a description of the State.

Conception Bay, on the Island of Newfoundland, was settled in the year 1610, by about forty planters under governour John Guy, to whom king James had given a patent of incorporation.

Champlain, a Frenchman, had begun a settlement at Quebeck 1608. St. Croix, Mount Mansel and Port Royal were settled about the same time. These settlements remained undisturbed till 1613, when the Virginians, hearing that the French had settled within their limits, sent Capt. Argal to dislodge them. For this purpose he sailed to Sagadahok, took their forts at Mount Mansel, St. Croix, and Port Royal, with their vessels, ordnance, cattle and provisions, and carried them to James-town in Virginia. Quebeck was left in possession of the French.

1614.] This year Capt. John Smith, with two ships and forty-five men and boys, made a voyage to North-Virginia, to make experiments upon a gold and copper mine. His orders were to fish and trade with the natives, if he should fail in his expectations with regard to the mine. To facilitate this business, he took with him *Tantum*, an Indian, perhaps one that Capt. Weymouth carried to England in 1605. In April he reached the Island Monahigan in lat. 43° 30′. Here Capt. Smith was directed to stay and keep possession with ten men, for the purpose of making a trial of the whaling business, but being disappointed in this, he built seven boats, in which 37 men made a very successful fishing voyage. In the mean time the Captain himself, with eight men only, in a small boat, coasted from Penobscot to Sagadahok, Acocisco, Passataquack, Tragabizanda, now called Cape Ann; thence to Acomack, where he skirmished with some Indians; thence to Cape Cod, where he set his Indian, Tantum, ashore, and left him, and returned to Monahigan. In this voyage he found two French ships in the Bay of Massachusetts, who had come there six weeks before, and during that time, had been trading very advantageously with the Indians. It was conjectured that there were, at this time, three thousand Indians upon the Massachusetts islands,

In July, Capt. Smith embarked for England in one of the ve leaving the other under the command of Capt. Thomas Hunt, equip for a voyage to Spain. After Capt. Smith's departure, Hunt perfidiously allured twenty Indians (one of whom was *Squanto*, afterward so serviceable to the English) to come on board his ship at Patuxit, and seven more at Nausit, and carried them to the island of Malaga, where he sold them for twenty pounds each, to be slaves for life. This conduct, which fixes an indelible stigma upon the character of Hunt, excited in the breasts of the Indians such an inveterate hatred of the English, that, for many years after, all commercial intercourse with them was rendered exceedingly dangerous.

Capt. Smith arrived at London the last of August, where he drew a map of the country, and called it NEW-ENGLAND. From this time North-Virginia assumed the name of *New-England*, and the name *Virginia* was confined to the southern colony.

Between the years 1614 and 1620, several attempts were made by the Plymouth Company to settle New-England, but from several causes they were all rendered ineffectual. During this time, however, an advantageous trade was carried on with the natives.

1615.] Robert Bylot and William Baffin sailed from Eng-
1616. land in search of a north-west passage. The following year they made another voyage, and discovered the great northern bay which bears *Baffin's* name.

About this time, war, famine and pestilence raged among the natives of New-England, and swept off great numbers of them. When *Thomas Dermer* arrived in New-England in 1619, he found many places, before populous, almost desolate, and the few remaining inhabitants, either sick or but scarcely recovered.

1617.] In the year 1617, Mr. Robinson and his congregation, influenced by several weighty reasons, meditated a removal to America.

Various difficulties intervened to prevent the success of their
1620. designs until the year 1620, when a part of Mr. Robinson's congregation came over and settled at Plymouth. At this time commenced the settlement of New-England.

The particulars relating to the first immigrations to this northern part of America; the progress of its settlement, &c. will be given in the history of New-England, to which the reader is referred.

In order to preserve the chronological order in which the several colonies, now grown into independent states, were first settled,
1621. it will be necessary that I should just mention, that the next year after the settlement of Plymouth, Capt. John Mason obtained of the Plymouth council a grant of a part of the pre-
1623. sent state of New-Hampshire. Two years after, under the authority of this grant, a small colony fixed down near the mouth of Piscataqua river. From this period we may date the settlement of NEW-HAMPSHIRE.

1627.] In 1627, a colony of Swedes and Finns came over and landed at Cape Henlopen; and afterwards purchased of the Indians the land from Cape Henlopen to the Falls of Delaware, on both sides the river, which they called *New-Swedeland Stream*. On this river they built several forts, and made settlements.

1628.] On the 19th of March, 1628, the council for New-England sold to Sir Henry Roswell, and five others, a large tract of land lying round Massachusetts Bay. The June following, Capt. John Endicot, with his wife and company, came over and settled at Naumkeag, now called Salem.* This was the first English settlement which was made in MASSACHUSETTS BAY. Plymouth, indeed, which is now included in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, was settled eight years before, but at this time it was a separate colony, under a distinct government, and continued so, until the second charter of Massachusetts was granted by William and Mary in 1691; by which Plymouth, the Province of Maine and Sagadahok were annexed to Massachusetts.

June 13, 1633.] In the reign of Charles the first, Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholick, applied for, and obtained a grant of a tract of land upon Chesapeak Bay, about one hundred and forty miles long, and one hundred and thirty broad. Soon after this, in consequence of the rigour of the laws of England against the Roman Catholicks, Lord Baltimore, with a number of his persecuted brethren, came over and settled it, and in honour of queen Henrietta Maria, they called it MARYLAND.

The first grant of Connecticut was made by Robert, Earl of Warwick, president of the council of Plymouth, to Lord Say and Seal, to Lord Brook and others, in the year 1631.† In consequence of several smaller grants made afterwards by the patentees to particular persons, Mr. Fenwick made a settlement at the mouth of Connecticut river, and called it *Saybrook*. About the same time (1636) a number of people from Massachusetts Bay came and began settlements at Hartford, Weathersfield and Windsor, on Connecticut river. Thus commenced the English settlement of Connecticut.

Mar. 19th. 1631. 1635. 1636.

Rhode-Island was first settled in consequence of religious persecution. Mr. Roger Williams, who was among those who came early over to Massachusetts, not agreeing with some of his brethren in sentiment, was very unjustifiably banished the colony, and went with twelve others, his adherents, and settled at Providence in 1635. From this beginning arose the colony, now State of RHODE-ISLAND.

1635.

* "Among others who arrived at Naumkeag, were Ralph Sprague, with his brethren, Richard and William; who, with 3 or 4 more, by Governour Endicot's consent, undertook a journey through the woods above 12 miles westward, till they came to a neck of land called *Mishawum*, between Mystik and Charles Rivers, full of Indians, named *Abergivians*. Their old Sachem being dead, his eldest son, called by the English John Sagamore, was chief; a man of gentle and good disposition, by whose free consent they settled here; where they found but one English house, thatched and palisadoed, possessed by Thomas Walford, a smith." Prince's Chron. page 174.

"June 1629, Mr. Thomas Graves removed from Salem to *Mishawum*, and with the Governour's consent called it *Charlestown*. He laid the town out in two acre lots, and built the *Great House* which afterwards became the house of publick worship, Mr. Bright, minister." Ibid. page 188.

† Hazard's Hist. Coll. p. 318.

1664.] On the 20th of March, 1664, Charles the second granted to the Duke of York, what is now called NEW-JERSEY, then a part of a large tract of country by the name of New-Netherland. Some parts of New-Jersey were settled by the Dutch as early as about 1615.

1662.] In the year 1662, Charles the second granted to Edward, Earl of Clarendon, and seven others, almost the whole territory of the three southern States, North and South-Carolina and Georgia.

1664. Two years after he granted a second charter, enlarging their boundaries. The proprietors, by virtue of authority vested in them by their charter, engaged Mr. Locke to frame a system of laws for the government of their intended colony. Notwithstanding these preparations, no effectual settlement was made until the year

1669. 1669, (though one was attempted in 1667) when Governour Sayle came over with a colony and fixed on a neck of land between Ashley and Cooper Rivers. Thus commenced the settlement of CAROLINA, which then included the whole territory between 29° and 36° 30′ north latitude, together with the Bahama islands, lying between latitude 22 and 27° north.

1681.] The royal charter for Pennsylvania was granted to William Penn on the 4th of March, 1681. The first colony came

1682. over the next year and settled under the proprietor, William Penn, who acted as Governour, from October, 1682, to August, 1684. The first assembly in the province of Pennsylvania was held at Chester, on the 4th of December, 1682. Thus William Penn, a Quaker, justly celebrated as a great and good man, had the honour of laying the foundation of the present populous and very flourishing State of PENNSYLVANIA.

The proprietary government in Carolina, was attended with so many inconveniences, and occasioned such violent dissensions among the settlers, that the Parliament of Great-Britain was induced to take the province under their immediate care. The proprietors (except Lord Granville) accepted of 22,500l. sterling, from the crown, for the property and jurisdiction. This agreement was ratified by act

1729. of Parliament in 1729. A clause in this act reserved to Lord Granville his eighth share of the property and arrears of quit-rents, which continued legally vested in his family till the revolution in 1776. Lord Granville's share, made a part of the present state of North-Carolina. About the year 1729, the extensive territory belonging to the proprietors, was divided into North and South-Carolina. They remained separate royal governments until they became independent States.

For the relief of poor indigent people of Great-Britain and Ireland, and for the security of Carolina, a project was formed for planting a colony between the rivers Savannah and Altamaha. Accordingly, application being made to King George the second, he issued

1732. letters patent, bearing date June 9th, 1732, for legally carrying into execution the benevolent plan. In honour of the king, who greatly encouraged the plan, they called the new province GEORGIA. Twenty-one trustees were appointed to conduct the affairs relating to the settlement of the province. The November following,

one hundred and fifteen persons, one of whom was general Oglethorp, embarked for Georgia, where they arrived, and landed at Yamacraw. In exploring the country, they found an elevated pleasant spot of ground on the bank of a navigable river, upon which they marked out a town, and from the Indian name of the river which passed by it, called it Savannah. From this period we may date the settlement of Georgia.

The country now called Kentucky was well known to the Indian traders, many years before its settlement. They gave description of it to Lewis Evans, who published his first map of it as early as the year 1752. James Macbride, with some others, explored this country in 1754. Col. Daniel Boon visited it in 1769.

1752.

1754.

1773.] Four years after, Col. Boon and his family, with five other families, who were joined by forty men from Powell's Valley, began the settlement of KENTUCKY,* which is now one of the most growing colonies, perhaps in the world; and was erected into an independent state, by act of Congress, December 6th, 1790, and received into the Union, June 1st, 1792.

The tract of country called Vermont, before the late war, was claimed both by New-York and New-Hampshire. When hostilities commenced between Great-Britain and her Colonies, the inhabitants considering themselves as in a state of nature, as to civil government, and not within any legal jurisdiction, associated and formed for themselves a constitution of government. Under this constitution, they have ever since continued to exercise all the powers of an independent state. Vermont was not admitted into union with the other States till March 4th, 1791; yet we may venture to date her political existence as a separate government, from the year 1777; because, since that time, Vermont has, to all intents and purposes, been a sovereign and independent State. The first settlement in this State was made at Bennington, as early as about 1764.

1777.

The extensive tract of country lying north-west of the Ohio River, within the limits of the United States, was erected into a separate *temporary* government by an ordinance of Congress passed the 13th of July, 1787.

1787.

1789.] TENNESSEE has been a separate government since the year 1789; and in 1797 was admitted into the Federal Union.

1800.] The MISSISIPPI TERRITORY was erected into a separate government this year.

1803. March 3. } OHIO was admitted into the Union by act of Congress.

1803. Dec. } LOUISIANA was, by purchase, annexed to the United States.

* This settlement was made in violation of the Treaty, 1768, at Fort Stanwix, which expressly stipulates that this tract of country should be reserved for the western nations to hunt upon, until they and the crown of England should otherwise agree. This has been one great cause of the enmity of those Indian nations to the Virginians. [*Col. Morgan.*]

RECAPITULATION.

Names of places.	*When settled.*	*By whom.*
Quebeck,	1608	By the French.
Virginia,	1610 or 1611	By Lord De la War.
Newfoundland,	June, 1610	By Governour John Guy.
New-York, New-Jersey,	about 1614	By the Dutch.
Plymouth,	1620	By part of Mr. Robinson's congregation.
New-Hampshire,	1623	By a small English colony near the mouth of Piscataqua river.
Delaware, Pennsylvania,	1627	By the Swedes and Finns.
Massachusetts Bay,	1628	By Capt. John Endicot and company.
Maryland,	1633	By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman Catholicks.
Connecticut,	1635	By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode-Island,	1635	By Mr. Roger Williams and his persecuted brethren.
New-Jersey,	1664	Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II. and made a distinct government, and settled some time before this by the English.
South-Carolina,	1669	By Governour Sayle.
Pennsylvania,	1682	By William Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
North-Carolina,	about 1728	Erected into a separate government. Settled before by the English.
Georgia,	1732	By General Oglethorp.
Kentucky,	1773	By Col. Daniel Boon.
Vermont,	about 1764	By emigrants from Connecticut and other parts of New-England.
Territory N. W. of Ohio river,	1787	By the Ohio and other companies.
Tennessee,	1789	Became a distinct goverment, settled many years before.

The above dates are mostly from the periods when the first permanent settlements were made.

NORTH-AMERICA.

BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.

NORTH-AMERICA comprehends all that part of the western continent which lies north of the Isthmus of Darien, extending north and south from about the 10th degree north latitude, to the north pole; and east and west from the Atlantick to the Pacifick Ocean, between the 35th and 168th degrees of west longitude from Greenwich. Beyond the 70th degree N. lat. few discoveries have been made. In July, 1779, Capt. Cook proceeded as far as lat. 71°, when he came to a solid body of ice extending from continent to continent.

Bays, Sounds, Straits and Islands.] Of these (except those in the United States, which we shall describe under that head) we know little more than their names. Baffin's Bay, lying between the 70th and 80th degrees N. lat. is the largest and most northern, that has yet been discovered in North-America. It opens into the Atlantick Ocean through Baffin's and Davis's Straits, between Cape Chidley, on the Labrador coast, and Cape Farewell. It communicates with Hudson's Bay to the south, through a cluster of islands. In this capacious bay or gulf, is James Island, the south point of which is called Cape Bedford; and the smaller islands of Waygate and Disko. Davis's Straits separate Greenland from the American continent, and are between Cape Walsingham, on James island, and South Bay in Greenland, where they are about 60 leagues broad and extend from the 67th to the 71st degrees of lat. above Disko Island. The most southern point of Greenland is called Cape Farewell.

Hudson's Bay took its name from Henry Hudson, who discovered it in 1610. It lies between 51 and 69 degrees of north latitude. The eastern boundary of the bay is Terra de Labrador; the northern part has a straight coast facing the bay, guarded with a line of isles innumerable. A vast bay, called the Archiwinnipy Sea, lies within it, and opens into Hudson's Bay, by means of Gulf Hazard, through which the Beluga whales pass in great numbers. The entrance of the Bay from the Atlantick Ocean, after leaving, to the north, Cape Farewell and Davis's Straits, is between Resolution Isles on the north, and Button's Isles, on the Labrador coast, to the south, forming the eastern extremity of Hudson's Straits.

The coasts are very high, rocky and rugged at top; in some places precipitous, but sometimes exhibit extensive beaches. The islands of Salisbury, Nottingham, and Digges are very lofty and naked. The depth of water, in the middle of the bay, is 140 fathoms. From Cape Churchill to the south end of the bay, are regular soundings; near the shore, shallow, with muddy or sandy bottom. To the northward of Churchill, the soundings are irregular, the bottom rocky, and in some parts the rocks appear above the surface at low water.

NORTH AMERICA
ASIA
Sea of Anadir
Arctic Circle
Cape Prince of Wales
Norton Sound
Behring's Straits
Kotzebue Sound
Cape Lisburne
Point Barrow
Mackenzie R.
Great Bear L.
Great Slave L.
Athabasca L.
Peace R.
Fort Chipewyan
Fort Resolution
Fort Providence
Fort Simpson
Fort Norman
Fort Good Hope
Fort Liard
Fort Vermilion
Fort Dunvegan
Fort Assiniboil
Fort Alexandria
Fort George
Fort Chilcotin
Fort Kamloops
Fort Okanagan
Fort Colville
Fort Walla Walla
Fort Nez Perces
Fort Hall
Fort Boisé
Fort Wallawalla
Fort Vancouver
Fort Astoria
Fort Langley
Fort Simpson
Fort Rupert
Fort Durham
Fort Connolly
Fort Chatham
Fort Houghton
Fort Stikine
Fort Selkirk
Fort Yukon
Fort Halkett
Fort Liard
Fort Nelson

James's Bay lies at the bottom, or most southern part of Hudson's Bay, with which it communicates, and divides New-Britain from South-Wales. To the north-westward of Hudson's Bay is an extensive chain of lakes, among which is Lake Menichlick, lat. 61° long. 105° W. North of this, is Lake Dobount, to the northward of which lies the extensive country of the northern Indians. West of these lakes, between the latitudes of 60 and 66 degrees, after passing a large cluster of unnamed lakes, lies the lake or sea Arathapescow, whose southern shores are inhabited by the Arathapescow Indians. North of this, and near the Arctick circle, is Lake Edlande, around which live the dog-ribbed Indians. Further north, is Buffalo lake, near which is Copper Mine River, lat. 72° N. and long. 119° W. of Greenwich. The Copper Mine Indians inhabit this country.

Between Copper Mine River, (which, according to Mr. Hearne, empties into the Northern Sea, where the tide rises 12 or 14 feet, and which in its whole course is encumbered with shoals and falls) and the North-west coast of America, is an extensive tract of unexplored country.* As you descend from north to south on the western coast of America, just south of the Arctick circle, you come to Cape Prince of Wales, opposite East Cape on the eastern Continent; and here the two Continents approach nearest to each other. Proceeding southward, you pass Norton Sound, Cape Stephen's Shoalness, Bristol Bay, Prince William's Sound, Cook's River, Admiralty Bay and Port Mulgrave, Nootka Sound, &c. From Nootka Sound proceeding south, you pass the unexplored country of New-Albion, thence to California, and New-Mexico.

DIVISIONS OF NORTH-AMERICA.

THE vast tract of country, extending west to the Pacifick Ocean, south and east to California, New-Mexico and Louisiana—the United States, Canada and the Atlantick Ocean, and extending as far north as the country is habitable, (a few scattered English, French, and some other European settlements excepted) is inhabited wholly by various nations and tribes of Indians. The Indians also possess large tracts of country within the Spanish American and British dominions. Those parts of North-America, not inhabited by Indians, belong (if we include Greenland) to Denmark, Great-Britain, the American States, and Spain. Spain claims East and West-Florida, New-Mexico and California. Great-Britain claims all the country inhabited by Europeans, lying north and east of the United States, except Greenland, which belongs to Denmark. The remaining part is the territory of the United States. The particular Provinces and States are exhibited in the following table.

* Mr. M'Kenzie, in 1789, made discoveries westward of Copper Mine River.

TABLE.

Belonging to	Countries, Provinces and States.	Chief Towns.
Denma.	West-Greenland.	New-Herrnhut
British Provinces.	New-Britain	
	Upper Canada	Kingston, Detroit, Niagara
	Lower Canada	Quebeck, Montreal
	Newfoundland	Placentia, St. John's
	Cape Breton Isle.	Sidney, Louisburg
	New-Brunswick	Fredericktown
	Nova-Scotia	Halifax
	St. John's Isle	Charlottetown
Provin. America.	United States	WASHINGTON
Span.	East-Florida	Augustino
	West-Florida	Pensacola
	New-Mexico.	St. Fee
	California	St. Juan
	Mexico, or New-Spain.	Mexico

WEST-GREENLAND.

THIS extensive country properly belongs to neither of the two continents; unless, as seems probable, it be united to America to the northward of Davis's Straits. From its contiguity to, and probable union with the American continent, it appears most proper to rank it among the countries of the western continent; and we have accordingly given it a place in the table of divisions of North-America, and shall here give a new description of it from the best authorities extant, principally from Crantz's History of Greenland.

Boundaries and Extent.] Greenland is bounded by Davis's Straits which divide it from America, on the west; to the northward, it is not limited, except by some unknown ocean, or by the North pole; east, it has the Icy sea, and a strait which separates it from Iceland; south-east, it is washed by the Atlantick Ocean; south, it terminates in a point called Cape Farewell, in latitude 59° north. From Cape Farewell, north-easterly, along the south-east shore, the coast has been discovered as far as 80° north, and along the western shore, up Davis's Straits, as far as the 78th degree.

Whether Greenland be an island, has not yet been decided, as no ship has yet penetrated higher than the 78th degree, on account of the ice. That it is not an island, but a part of the American continent,

is rendered probable, 1st. Because Davis's Straits,* or rather Baffin's Bay, grows narrower and narrower towards the 78th degree north. 2d. Because the coast, which in other places is very high towards the sea, grows lower and lower northward. 3d. The tide, which at Cape Farewell, and as far up as Cockin's Sound, in latitude 65°, rises 18 feet at the new and full moon, decreases to the northward of Disko, so that in latitude 70° it rises little more than 8 feet, and probably continues to diminish, till there is no tide at all.† To the above may be added the relation of the Greenlanders, (which, however, cannot be much depended on) viz. that the strait contracts itself so narrow at last, that they can go on the ice so near to the other side as to be able to call to the inhabitants, and that they can strike a fish on both sides at once; but that there runs such a strong current from the north into the strait, that they cannot pass it.

Face of the Country.] The western coast which is washed by Davis's Straits, is high, rocky, barren land, which rears its head in most places, close to the sea, in lofty mountains and inaccessible cliffs, and meets the mariner's eye 40 leagues at sea. All these, except the excessively steep and slippery rocks, are constantly covered with ice and snow, which has also, in length of time, filled all the elevated plains, and many vallies, and probably increases yearly. Those rocks and cliffs which are bare of snow, look, at a distance, of a dark brown, and quite naked as to any kind of growth; but by a nearer inspection, they are found to be interspersed with many veins of variegated colours of stone, here and there spread over with a little earth and turf.

Population.] Most of the Greenlanders live to the southward of the 62d degree of N. latitude, or as the inhabitants are wont to say, in the south; but no Europeans live there, so that these parts are but little known. The European colonies have fixed themselves to the northward of latitude 62°.

Formerly the western part of Greenland was inhabited by some thousands of Indians; but the small pox, in 1733, almost depopulated this country, which is the finest part of Greenland.

A factor, who lived many years in the country, and whose accuracy, as far as the subject will admit, may be depended on, found, in the compass of 40 leagues, which was the circle of his dealings, 957 souls, constant residents, besides occasional visitors. This part of Greenland is the most populous, except Disko Bay, (which is the best place for trade) and the southern parts. In other places, a person may travel 60 miles and not meet with a single person. Suppose, however, that the country is inhabited for the space of 400 leagues, and that there are 1000 souls for every 40 leagues, the amount would be 10,000. The above mentioned factor thinks that there are not more than 7000, because there are so many desert places. He asserts in-

* These straits were first discovered by John Davis, an Englishman, in 1585, in his attempt to find a north-west passage to the East-Indies.

† See Ellis's voyages to Hudson's Bay for the discovery of the N. W. passage, p. 50 to 54. From the reasons above, the English Capt. Baffin, gave up all hope of finding a passage into the South Sea, through Davis's Straits, and consequently concludes that Greenland joins America.

deed that the native Greenlanders, in 1730, amounted to 30,000; and when he made his first calculation in 1746, there were still 20,000. Consequently since that time their number has diminished at least one half.

Curiosities.] The astonishing mountains of ice in this country may well be reckoned among its greatest curiosities. Twelve leagues from the colony at Good Hope, lies the famous ice-glance, called in some charts, *Eis-blink*. It is a large high field of ice, whose glance in the air may be seen for many leagues at sea, resembling the Aurora Borealis. The mouth of an inlet, 4 leagues north of the colony, is blocked up in such a manner, by many large pieces of ice driven out by the ebb, that it forms a phenomenon like an arched ice bridge, stretching from land to land, 8 leagues in length, and two in breadth. The opening or arches of it are computed to be from 14 to 40 yards high. People might pass through them in boats, if they were not afraid of the broken fragments of ice that often fall from the top and sides of the arches. Places are found here where Greenland houses once stood, which proves that the mouth of this harbour was once open.

Nothing can exhibit a more dreadful, and at the same time a more dazzling appearance, than those prodigious masses of ice that surround the whole coast in various forms, reflecting a multitude of colours from the sun-beams, and calling to mind the enchanting scenes of romance. Such prospects they yield in calm weather; but when the wind begins to blow, and the waves to rise in vast billows, the violent shocks of those pieces of ice, dashing against one another, fill the mind with horror.

The ice mountains are pieces of ice floating in the sea, of an amazing size, and of very curious forms: Some have the appearance of a church or castle, with square or pointed turrets: others, of a ship under sail; and people have often given themselves fruitless toil to go on board and pilot the imaginary ship into harbour; others look like large islands, with plains, vallies and hills, which often rear their heads 200 yards above the level of the sea. In Disko Bay, on a ground which the whale fishers say is 300 fathoms deep, several such ice mountains have stood fast for many years, one of which they call the city Harlem, and another Amsterdam. This ice for the most part is very hard, clear and transparent as glass, of a pale green colour, and some pieces sky blue; but if you melt it and let it freeze again, it becomes white. [*Crantz.*]

Tides, Springs and Rivers.] The tide flows from south to north, and rises in common 3 fathoms in the south; two at Good Hope, and one at Disko, and continues to decrease as you proceed north. It is remarkable that the wells and springs in the country rise and fall in exact conformity to the waxing and waning of the moon, or the ebbing and flowing of the tides. In winter especially, when all is covered over with ice and snow, new and brisk fountains of water rise at spring tides, and disappear again in places where there is commonly no water, and which are elevated far above the level of the sea.

This country, in general, is not so well supplied with water as the hilly countries in warmer regions. Most of the springs, which afford

clear and wholesome water, have no other supply than the melted and imbibed snow-water. In the vallies, large ponds are thinly interspersed, which are fed by the ice and snow distilling from the mountains. The little streams from the hills, called salmon elves, are not so considerable as the hill waters, in more southern latitudes.

The country does not admit of large rivers. The vallies are not long, for the mountains presently shoot up aloft, and are covered with perpetual ice, which melts very little, and of course affords the springs but a scanty supply. Many springs are therefore dry in summer, and in the winter are arrested by the frost. Men and beasts would then die of thirst, if a wise Providence had not ordered, that in the hardest winter, rains and thaws sometimes happen, when the filtrated snow-water gathers in pools under the ice, and is thence taken by the inhabitants.

Air and Seasons.] As this country is covered, in most places, with everlasting ice and snow, it is easy to imagine that it must be extremely cold. In those places where the inhabitants enjoy the visits of the sun for an hour or two in a day in winter, the cold is tolerable, though even there strong liquors will freeze, when out of the warm rooms. But when the sun entirely forsakes the horizon, while people are drinking tea, the emptied cup will freeze on the table. Mr. Paul Edge, in his journal of January 7th, 1738, records the following extraordinary effects of cold at Disko: "The ice and hoar frost reaches through the chimney to the stove's mouth, without being thawed by the fire in the day time. Over the chimney is an arch of frost with small holes, through which the smoke discharges itself. The door and walls are as if they were plastered over with frost, and, which is scarcely credible, beds are often frozen to the bedstead. The linen is frozen to the drawers. The upper eider-down-bed and the pillows are quite stiff with frost an inch thick, from the breath. The flesh barrels must be hewn in pieces to get out the meat."

[*Crantz.*]

The most severe cold commences in January, and is so piercing in February and March, that the stones split, and the sea reeks like an oven, especially in the bays. When this *frost* smoke, as it is called, is wafted into the colder atmosphere, it freezes into little icy particles, which are driven by the wind, and create such a keen cold on the land, that one can scarcely leave the house without being frozen.

We may fix the limits of their summer from the beginning of May to the end of September; for during these five months the natives encamp in tents. The ground however is not thawed till June, and then only on the surface; and till then, it does not entirely leave off snowing. In August it begins to snow again, but the permanent snows do not fall till October. In the long summer days, the weather is so hot as to oblige the inhabitants to throw off their warm garments. The heat, in a clear sunshine upon the open sea, has been known to be so great, as to melt the pitch on the sides of a ship.

In summer there is no night in this country. Beyond the 66th degree, in the longest days, the sun does not set; and at Good Hope, in latitude 64°, the sun does not set till 10 minutes after 10 o'clock, and

rises again 50 minutes after one o'clock. The winter days are proportionably short.

Productions, mineral and vegetable.] The amiantus and asbestos, or stone flax, is found in plenty in the hills of this country. There are also quartzes and crystals in pretty large pieces, coarse marble of all colours, iron stone and ore, and a soft stone called, by some, French chalk, by others bastard marble, out of which the inhabitants make all their vessels. When rubbed with oil, it assumes a beautiful marble smoothness, and grows more firm and solid by being used over the fire.

Among the vegetables of this cold country, are sorrel of various sorts, angelica, wild tansey, scurvy grass in great quantities, wild rosemary, dandelions in plenty, and various sorts of grass. Whortle-berries and cranberries grow here. Europeans have sown barley and oats, which grow as high and thrifty as in warmer climates, but seldom advance so far as to ear, and never, even in the warmest places, arrive to maturity, because the frosty nights begin too soon.

Animals.] Unfruitful as this country is, it affords sustenance for some, though but few kinds of beasts which furnish the natives with food and raiment. Of the wild game, are white hares, rein-deer, foxes, and white bears, who are fierce and mischievous. The Greenlanders have no tame animals but a species of dogs, which resemble wolves.

The *Seal* of Greenland, is a quadruped, and amphibious. There are several sorts of them, but they are alike in having a tough hairy skin, like the land animals, except that the hair is thick, short and smooth. They have two short feet before, standing downwards, for the conveniency of rowing, and behind they have also two standing outwards for steering, one on each side of the tail. They have five toes on their feet, each consisting of four joints, and terminating in a long nail or claw, with which they climb the ice or rocks. The hinder feet are webbed like those of a goose, so that in swimming they spread them like a fan. The water is their proper element, and fish their food. Their flesh affords the inhabitants a nourishing food, and their skins an excellent warm covering.

Fishery.] The Greenland fishery is productive, and is chiefly engrossed by the English and Dutch nations. In 1785, Great-Britain employed 153 ships in this fishery, and the Dutch, 65.*

Religion.] The first missionaries among the Greenlanders, entertained a doubt whether they had any conception of a Divine Being, as they had no word in their language by which to designate him. When they were asked who made the heaven and earth and all visible things? their answer was—"We know not; or, we don't know him; or, it must have been some mighty person; or, things always have been as they are, and will always remain so." But when they understood their language better, they found they had some vague notions concerning the soul, and spirits; and were solicitous about the state after death. It was evident also that they had some faint conceptions of a Divine Being.

* Chalmer's estimate, page 150.

They believe in the doctrine of the transmigration of souls; that the soul is a spiritual essence, quite different from the body; that it needs no corporeal nourishment; that it survives the body, and lives in a future better state, which they believe will never end. But they have very different ideas of this state. Many place their *Elysium* in the abysses of the ocean, or the bowels of the earth, and think the deep cavities of the rocks are the avenues leading to it. There dwells *Torngarsuck** and his mother; there a joyous summer is perpetual, and a shining sun is obscured by no night; there is the limpid stream and abundance of fowls, fishes, rein-deer and their beloved seals; and these are all to be caught without toil, nay they are even found in a great kettle boiling alive. But to these delightful seats none must approach, but those who have been dexterous and diligent at their work, (for this is their grand idea of virtue) that have performed great exploits, and have mastered many whales and seals, have undergone great hardships, have been drowned in the sea, or died in childbed. The disembodied spirit does not enter dancing into the Elysian fields, but must spend five whole days, some say longer, in sliding down a rugged rock, which is thereby smeared with blood and gore. Those unfortunate souls which are obliged to perform this rough journey in the cold winter, or in boisterous weather, are peculiar objects of their pity, because they may be easily destroyed on the road, which destruction they call the second death, and describe it as a perfect extinction, and this, to them, is the most dreadful consideration. Therefore, during these five days or more, the surviving relations must abstain from certain meats, and from all noisy work, (except the necessary fishing) that the soul may not be disturbed or perish in its perilous passage. From all which it is plain, that the Greenlanders, stupid as they have been represented, have an idea that the good will be rewarded, and the bad punished—and that they conceive a horror at the thoughts of the entire annihilation of the soul; and of course more rational than the sect of modern philosophists.

Others have their paradise among the celestial bodies, and they imagine their flight thither so easy and rapid, that the soul rests the very same evening in the mansions of the moon, who was a Greenlander, and there it can dance and play at ball with the rest of the souls; for they think the northern lights to be the dance of sportive souls. The souls in this paradise are placed in tents round a vast lake abounding with fish and fowl. When this lake overflows, it rains on the earth, but should the dam once break, there would be a general deluge.

The wiser Greenlanders, who consider the soul as a spiritual immaterial essence, laugh at all this, and say, if there should be such a material, luxuriant paradise, where souls could entertain themselves with hunting, still it can only endure for a time. Afterwards the souls will certainly be conveyed to the peaceful mansions. But they know not what their food or employment will be. On the other hand, they place their hell in the subterraneous regions, which are devoid of light and heat, and filled with perpetual terror and anxie-

* The name of the good Spirit answering to the heathen Jupiter.

ty. This last sort of people lead a regular life, and refrain from every thing, which, in their opinion, is evil.

History.] West-Greenland was first peopled by Europeans in the eighth century. At that time a company of Icelanders, headed by one Ericke Rande, were by accident driven on the coast. On his return he represented the country in such a favourable light, that some families again followed him thither, where they soon became a thriving colony, and bestowed on their new habitation the name of Groenland, or Greenland, on account of its verdant appearance. This colony was converted to christianity by a missionary from Norway, sent thither by the celebrated Olaf, the first Norwegian monarch who embraced the true religion. The Greenland settlement continued to increase and thrive under his protection; and in a little time the country was provided with many towns, churches, convents, bishops, &c. under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Drontheim. A considerable commerce was carried on between Greenland and Norway; and a regular intercourse maintained between the two countries till the year 1406, when the last bishop was sent over. From that time all correspondence was cut off, and all knowledge of Greenland has been buried in oblivion.

This strange and abrupt cessation of all trade and intercourse has been attributed to various causes; but the most probable is the following. The colony, from its first settlement, had been harassed by the natives, a barbarous and savage people; agreeing in customs, garb and appearance, with the Esquimaux found about Hudson's Bay. This nation, called *Schrellings*, at length prevailed against the Iceland settlers who inhabited the western district, and exterminated them in the 14th century; insomuch that when their brethren of the eastern district came to their assistance, they found nothing alive but some cattle and flocks of sheep running wild about the country. Perhaps they themselves afterwards experienced the same fate, and were totally destroyed by these Schrellings, whose descendants still inhabit the western parts of Greenland, and from tradition confirm this conjecture. They affirm that the houses and villages, whose ruins still appear, were inhabited by a nation of strangers, whom their ancestors destroyed. There are reasons, however, for believing that there may be still some descendants of the ancient Iceland colony remaining in the eastern district, though they cannot be visited by land, on account of the stupendous mountains, perpetually covered with snow, which divide the two parts of Greenland; while they have been rendered inaccessible by sea, by the vast quantity of ice driven from Spitzbergen, or East Greenland. One would imagine that there must have been some considerable alteration in the northern parts of the world since the 15th century, so that the coast of Greenland is now become almost totally inaccessible, though formerly visited with very little difficulty. It is also natural to ask, by what means the people of the eastern colony surmounted the above-mentioned obstacles, when they went to the assistance of their western friends; how they returned to their own country; and in what manner historians learned the success of their expedition? Concerning all this we have very little satisfactory information. All that can be learned from the most authentick records is, that Greenland was divided into two districts, called *West Bygd* and *East Bygd*; that the western division contained four parishes

and 100 villages: that the eastern district was still more flourishing, as being nearer to Iceland, sooner settled, and more frequented by shipping from Norway. There are also many accounts, though most of them romantick and slightly attested, which render it probable that part of the eastern colony still subsists, who, at some time or other, may have given the imperfect relation above mentioned. This colony, in ancient times, certainly comprehended twelve extensive parishes, one hundred and ninety villages, a bishop's see, and two monasteries. The present inhabitants of the western district are entirely ignorant of this part, from which they are divided by rocks, mountains, and deserts, and still more effectually by their apprehension; for they believe the eastern Greenlanders to be a cruel, barbarous nation, that destroy and eat all strangers who fall into their hands. About a century after all intercourse between Norway and Greenland had ceased, several ships were sent successively by the kings of Denmark, in order to discover the eastern district; but all of them miscarried. Among these adventurers, Mogens Heinson, after having surmounted many difficulties and dangers, got sight of the land, which, however, he could not approach. At his return, he pretended that the ship was arrested in the middle of her course, by certain rocks of loadstone at the bottom of the sea.

The same year, 1576, in which this attempt was made, has been rendered remarkable by the voyage of captain Martin Frobisher, sent upon the same errand by Queen Elizabeth. He likewise descried the land, but could not reach it, and therefore returned to England; yet not before he had sailed sixty leagues in the strait, which still retains his name, and landed on several islands, where he had some communication with the natives. He had likewise taken possession of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth; and brought away some pieces of heavy black stone, from which the refiners of London extracted a certain proportion of gold. In the ensuing spring, he undertook a second voyage at the head of a small squadron, equipped at the expense of the publick; entered the straits a second time; discovered upon an island a gold and silver mine; bestowed names on different bays, islands and headlands; and brought away a lading of ore, together with two natives, a male and female, whom the English kidnapped.

Such was the success of this voyage, that another armament was fitted out under the auspices of Admiral Frobisher, consisting of 15 sail, including a considerable number of soldiers, miners, smelters, carpenters and bakers, to remain all winter near the mines in a wooden fort, the different pieces of which they carried out in their transports. They met with boisterous weather, impenetrable fogs, and violent currents upon the coast of Greenland, which retarded their operations, until the season was far advanced. Part of their wooden fort was lost at sea; and they had neither provisions nor fuel sufficient for the winter. The admiral therefore determined to return with as much ore as he could procure; of this they obtained large quantities out of a new mine, to which they gave the name of the Countess of Sussex. They likwise built a house of stone and lime, provided with ovens; and here, with a view to conciliate the affection of the natives,

they left a quantity of small morrice-bells, knives, beads, looking-glasses, leaden pictures, and other toys, together with several loaves of bread. They buried the timber of the fort where it could be easily found next year; and sowed corn, peas and other grain, by way of experiment, to know what the country would produce. Having taken these precautions, they sailed from thence in the beginning of September, and after a month's stormy passage, arrived in England: but this noble design was never prosecuted.

Christian IV. king of Denmark, being desirous of discovering the old Greenland settlement, sent three ships thither, under the command of Captain Godske Lindenow; who is said to have reached the east coast of Greenland, where he traded with the savage inhabitants, such as they are still found in the western district, but saw no signs of a civilized people. Had he actually landed on the eastern division, he must have perceived some remains of the ancient colony, even in the ruins of their convents and villages. Lindenow kidnapped two of the natives, who were conveyed to Copenhagen; and the same cruel fraud* was practised by two other ships which sailed into Davis's Straits, where they discovered divers fine harbours and delightful meadows covered with verdure. In some places they are said to have found a considerable quantity of ore, every hundred pounds of which yielded twenty-six ounces of silver. The same Admiral Lindenow, made another voyage to the coast of Greenland in the year 1606, directing his course to the westward of Cape Farewell. He coasted along the Straits of Davis; and having made some observations on the face of the country, the harbours and islands, returned to Denmark. Carsten Richards, being detached with two ships on the same discovery, descried the high land on the eastern side of Greenland; but was hindered by the ice from approaching the shore.

Other expeditions of the same nature have been planned and executed with the same bad success, under the auspices of a Danish company of merchants. Two ships returned from the western part of

* Nothing can be more inhuman and repugnant to the dictates of common justice than this practice of tearing away poor creatures from their country, their families and connection, unless we suppose them altogether destitute of natural affection; and that this was not the case with those poor Greenlanders, some of whom were brought alive to Copenhagen, appears from the whole tenor of their conduct, upon their first capture, and during their confinement in Denmark. When first captivated, they rent the air with their cries and lamentations; they even leaped into the sea; and, when taken on board, for some time refused all sustenance. Their eyes were continually turned towards their dear country, and their faces always bathed in tears. Even the countenance of his Danish majesty, and the caresses of the court and people, could not alleviate their grief. One of them was perceived to shed tears always when he saw an infant in the mother's arms; a circumstance from whence it was naturally concluded, that he left his wife with a young child in Greenland. Two of them went to sea in their little canoes in hopes of reaching Greenland; but one of them was retaken. Two others made the same attempt; but were driven by a storm on the coast of Schonen, where they were apprehended by the peasants, and re-conveyed to Copenhagen. One of them afterwards died of a fever, caught in fishing pearl, during the winter, for the governour of Kolding. The rest lived some years in Denmark; but at length, seeing no prospect of being able to revisit their native country, they sunk into a kind of melancholy disorder, and expired.

Greenland laden with a kind of yellow sand, supposed to contain a large proportion of gold. This being assayed by the goldsmiths of Copenhagen, was condemned as useless, and thrown overboard: but from a small quantity of this sand, which was reserved as a curiosity, an expert chymist afterwards extracted a quantity of pure gold. The captain who brought home this adventure, was so chagrined at his disappointment, that he died of grief, without having left any directions concerning the place where the sand had been discovered. In the year 1654, Henry Moller, a rich Dane, equipped a vessel under the command of David de Nelles, who sailed to the west coast of Greenland, from which he carried off three women of the country. Other efforts have been made under the patronage of the Danish king, for the discovery and recovery of the old Iceland colony in Greenland: but all of them miscarried, and people began to look upon such expeditions as wild and chimerical. At length the Greenland company at Bergen in Norway, transported a colony to the western coast, about the 64th degree of latitude, and these Norwegians sailed in the year 1712, accompanied by the Reverend Hans Egede, to whose care, ability and precision we owe the best and most authentick account of modern Greenland. This gentleman endeavoured to reach the eastern district, by coasting southward, and advanced as far as the States Promontory; but the season of the year and continual storms obliged him to return; and as he could not even find the strait of Frobisher, he concluded that no such place ever existed. In the year 1724, a ship being equipped by the company, sailed on this discovery, with a view to land on the east side opposite to Iceland; but the vast shoals of ice which barricadoed that part of the coast, rendered this scheme impracticable. His Danish majesty, in the year 1728, caused horses to be transported to Greenland, in hopes that the settlers might, by their means, travel over land to the eastern district; but the icy mountains were found impassable. Finally, lieutenant Richards, in a ship which had wintered near the new Danish colony, attempted, in his return to Denmark, to land on the eastern shore; but all his endeavours proved abortive.

Mr. Egede is of opinion, that the only practicable method of reaching that part of the country, will be to coast north-about in small vessels, between the great flakes of ice and the shore, as the Greenlanders have declared that the currents continually issuing from the bays and inlets, and running south-westward along the shore, hinder the ice from adhering to the land; so that there is always a channel open, through which vessels of small burden might pass, especially if lodges were built at suitable distances on the shore, for the convenience and direction of the adventurers.

BRITISH AMERICA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

UNDER the general name of British America, we comprehend the vast extent of country, bounded south by the United States of America and the Atlantick Ocean; east by the same ocean and Davis's Straits, which divide it from Greenland; extending north to the northern limits of the Hudson's Bay charter; and westward indefinitely—Lying between 42° 30′ and 70° north latitude; and between 50 and 96° W. lon. from Greenwich.

Divisions.] British America is divided into four Provinces, viz. 1. Upper Canada; 2. Lower Canada, to which are annexed New-Britain, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay, and the Island of Cape Breton, which in 1784 was formed into a separate government by the name of Sydney; 3. New-Brunswick; 4. Nova-Scotia, to which is annexed the island of St. John's. Besides these, there is the island of Newfoundland, which is governed by the admiral for the time being, and two lieutenant-governours, who reside at Placentia and St. John's. The troops stationed at Newfoundland, however, are subject to the orders of the governour-general of the four British provinces. "The number of people in the whole of the northern British colonies is perhaps 160,000 or 180,000."*

NEW-BRITAIN.

THE country lying round Hudson's Bay, or the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, New-North and South-Wales has obtained the general name of NEW-BRITAIN, and is attached to the government of Lower Canada. This country, according to Mr. Guthrie, is 850 miles long, and 750 broad, and lies between 50° and 70° N. lat. and 50° and 100° W. lon. from London. It lies north of Upper and Lower Canada, and west of Greenland, from which it is separated by Davis's Straits. A superintendant of trade, appointed by the governour-general of the four British provinces, and responsible to him, resides at Labrador.

Rivers.] The principal rivers which water this country, are the Wager, Monk, Seal, Pockerekesko, Churchill, Nelson, Hayes, New Severn, Albany, Moose and Pasquitaw rivers, all which empty into Hudson's and James's Bay, from the west. The mouths of all the

* Coxe's View of the United States. p. 179.

rivers are filled with shoals, except Churchill's, in which the largest ships may lie; but ten miles higher, the channel is obstructed by sand banks. All the rivers as far as they have been explored, are full of rapids and cataracts, from 10 to 60 feet perpendicular. Down these rivers the Indian traders find a quick passage; but their return is a labour of many months.

Face of the Country, Soil, &c.] As far inland as the Hudson Bay company have settlements, which is 600 miles to the west of fort Churchill, at a place called Hudson House, lat. 53°, lon. 106° 27′ W. from London, is flat country; nor is it known how far to the eastward, the great chain seen by navigators from the Pacifick Ocean, branches off. From Moose river, or the bottom of the Bay, to Cape Churchill, the land is flat, marshy and wooded with pines, birch, larch and willows. From Cape Churchill to Wager's river, the coasts are high and rocky to the very sea, and woodless, except the mouth of Pockerekesko and Seal rivers. The hills on their back are naked, nor are there any trees for a great distance inland.

The eastern coast is barren, past the efforts of cultivation. The surface is every where uneven, and covered with masses of stone of an amazing size. It is a country of fruitless vallies and frightful mountains, some of an astonishing height. The vallies are full of lakes, formed not from springs, but rain and snow, so chilly as to be productive of a few small trout only. The mountains have here and there a blighted shrub or a little moss. The vallies are full of crooked, stunted trees, pines, fir, birch and cedars, or rather a species of the juniper. In lat. 60°, on this coast, vegetation ceases. The whole shore like that on the west is faced with islands at some distance from land.

Inhabitants, Customs, &c.] The inhabitants among the mountains are Indians; along the coasts, Esquimaux. The dogs of the former are very small; of the latter large, and headed like a fox. Notwithstanding they have rein-deer, they never train them for the sledge, but apply their dogs to that use. Walruses visit a place called Nuchvunk, in lat. 60°, during winter: from thence the natives purchase the teeth, with which they head their darts.

The laudable zeal of the Moravian clergy induced them, in the year 1752, to send missionaries from Greenland to this country. They fixed on Nesbit's harbour for their settlement; but of the first party, some of them were killed, and the others driven away. In 1764, under the protection of the British government, another attempt was made. The missionaries were well received by the Esquimaux, and the mission, from the last accounts, went on with success.

Climate.] The climate, even about Haye's river, in only lat. 57°, is, during winter, excessively cold. The snows begin to fall in October, and continue falling by intervals the whole winter; and, when the frost is most rigorous, in form of the finest sand. The ice on the river is eight feet thick. Port wine freezes into a solid mass; brandy coagulates. The very breath falls on the blankets of the beds in the form of a hoar frost, and the bed clothes often are found frozen to the wall. The sun rises, in the shortest day, five minutes past nine, and sets five minutes before three. In the longest day the sun rises

at three, and sets about nine. The ice begins to disappear in May, and hot weather commences about the middle of June, which at times is so violent as to scorch the faces of the hunters. Thunder is not frequent, but very violent. But there must be a great difference of heat and cold in this vast extent, which reaches from lat. 50° 40′, to lat. 63° north. During winter the firmament is not without its beauties. Mock suns, halos are not unfrequent; they are very bright, and richly tinged with all the colours of the rainbow. The sun rises and sets with a large cone of yellowish light. The night is enlivened with the Aurora Borealis, which spreads a thousand different lights and colours over the whole concave of the sky, not to be defaced even by the splendour of the full moon; and the stars are of a fiery redness.

Animals.] The animals of these countries are, the moose deer, stags, rein-deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, wild cats and hares. The rein-deer pass in vast herds towards the north in October, seeking the extreme cold. The male polar bears rove out at sea, on the floating ice most of the winter, and till June; the females lie concealed in the woods, or beneath the banks of rivers, till March, when they come abroad with their twin cubs, and bend their course to the sea in search of their consorts. Several are killed in their passage; and those that are wounded show vast fury, roar hideously, and bite and throw up in the air even their own progeny. The females and the young, when not interrupted, continue their way to the sea. In June the males return to shore, and by August are joined by their consorts, with their cubs, by that time of a considerable size. The feathered kinds are geese, bustards, ducks, growse, and all manner of wild fowls. Indeed multitudes of birds retire to this remote country, to Labrador and Newfoundland, from places more remotely south, perhaps from the Antilles; and some even of the most delicate little species. Most of them, with numbers of aquatick fowls, are seen returning southward with their young broods to more favourable climates. The savages in some respects regulate their months by the appearance of birds; and have their goose month, from the vernal appearance of geese from the south. All the growse kind, ravens, ash-coloured crows, titmouse, and Lapland finch, brave the severest winter; and several of the falcons and owls seek shelter in the woods. Of fish, there are whales, morses, seals, codfish and a white fish, preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp and trout.

All the quadrupeds of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the several animals; when that season is over, which holds only for three months, they all assume the livery of winter, and every sort of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprizing phenomenon. But what is yet more surprizing, and what is indeed one of the most striking things, that draw the most inattentive to an admiration of the wisdom and goodness of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from Britain that have been carried into

Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.*

Discovery and Commerce.] The knowledge of these northern seas and countries, was owing to a project started in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East-Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of discovery it seems probable, that no practicable passage ever can be found. Frobisher discovered the Main of New-Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northern coasts, but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure, the first in 1607, the second in 1608, and his third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that lead into the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half, into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, he stayed here until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships, without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy seas, in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up the waves, or, gaining the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages; but the ship and the rest of the men returned home.

Other attempts towards a discovery were made in 1612 and 1667; and a patent for planting the country, with a charter for a company, was obtained in the year 1670. In 1646 captain Ellis wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half, and captain Christopher attempted farther discoveries in 1661. But besides these voyages, we are indebted to the Hudson's Bay Company for a journey by land; which throws much additional light on this matter, by affording what may be called demonstration, how much farther north, at least in some parts of their voyage, ships must go, before they can pass from one side of America to the other. The northern Indians, who came down to the Company's factories to trade, had brought to their knowledge a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of the Copper Mine River. The Company being desirous of examining into this matter with precision, directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their service, and who having been brought up for the navy, and served in it for several years, was extremely well qualified for the purpose, to proceed over land, under the convoy of those Indians, for that river; which he had or-

* Mr. Guthrie, in his account of the animals of New-Britain, takes occasion "to observe in general that *all* the quadrupeds of this New-World are less than those of the Old." This is a gross error, copied from Buffon, and which ought not to be repeated, after its complete confutation by Mr. Jefferson, and other American writers.

ders to survey, if possible, quite down to its entrance into the sea; to make observations for fixing the latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings both of it and the countries through which he should pass.

Accordingly, Mr. Hearne set out from Prince of Wales' Fort on Churchill River, latitude 58° 47½′ north, and longitude 94° 7½′ west from Greenwich, on the 7th of December, 1770. Mr. Hearne on the 13th of July reached the Copper Mine River, and found it all the way even to its entrance into the sea, encumbered with shoals and falls, and emptying itself into it over a dry flat of the shore, the tide being then out, which seemed, by the edges of the ice, to rise about 12 or 14 feet. This rise, on account of the falls, will carry it but a very small way within the river's mouth, so that the water in it has not the least brackish taste. Mr. Hearne is, nevertheless, sure of the place it emptied itself into being the sea or a branch of it, by the quantity of whale-bone and seal skins which the Esquimaux had at their tents; and also by the number of seals which he saw upon the ice. The sea, at the river's mouth, was full of islands and shoals, as far as he could see, by the assistance of a pocket telescope; and the ice was not yet (July 17th) broke up, but thawed away only for about three quarters of a mile from the shore, and for a little way round the island and shoals which lay off the river's mouth. But he had the most extensive view of the sea when he was about eight miles up the river, from which station the extreme parts of it bore N. W. by W. and N. E.

By the time Mr. Hearne had finished his survey of the river, which was about 1 o'clock in the morning on the 18th, there came on a very thick fog and drizzling rain; and as he had found the river and sea in every respect unlikely to be of any utility, he thought it unnecessary to wait for fair weather, to determine the latitude more exactly by observation; but by the extraordinary care he took in observing the courses and distances, walking from *Congecathawhachaga*, where he had two very good observations, he thinks the latitude may be depended on within 10′ at the utmost. It appears from the map which Mr. Hearne constructed of this singular journey, that the mouth of the Copper Mine River lies in latitude 72° N. and longitude 25° W. from Churchill River; that is, about 119° W. of Greenwich. Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper Mine River to Churchill lasted till June 30th, 1772; so that he was absent almost a year and seven months. The unparalleled hardships he suffered, and the essential service he performed, have met with a suitable reward from his masters. He has been several years governour of Prince of Wales' Fort, on Churchill River, where he was taken prisoner by the French in 1782.

Though the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to England. The vast countries which surround Hudson's Bay, as we have already observed, abound with animals, whose fur and skins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever

since with great benefit to themselves, though comparatively with little advantage to Great-Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this exclusive company, whose interested, not to say iniquitous spirit, has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ four ships, and 130 seamen. They have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales' Fort, Churchill River, Nelson, New-Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. The French, in May, 1782, took and destroyed these forts and the settlements, &c. said to amount to the value of 500,000l. They export commodities to the value of 16,000l. and carry home returns to the value of 29,340l. which yield to the revenue 3,734l. This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. This commerce, small as it is, affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantages to Great-Britain in general; for the commodities exchanged with the Indians for their skins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, such things are sent of which there is the greatest plenty, and which, in the mercantile phrase are drugs. Though the workmanship too happens to be in many respects so deficient that no civilized people would take it, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the skins and furs brought from Hudson's Bay, are manufactured, and afford articles for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage. These circumstances prove the immense benefit that would redound to Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudson's Bay, since, even in its present restrained state, it is so advantageous. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fishery. Great-Britain has no settlement here. The annual produce of the fishery amounted, some years since, to upwards of 49,000l.

LOWER CANADA.

THE Province of Lower Canada was constituted by act of Parliament in 1791.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	1000	between	61° and 81° W. long. from London.
Breadth	400		45° and 52° N. latitude.

Boundaries and Divisions.] Bounded north, by New-Britain; east by the same and the Gulf of St. Lawrence; south-east and south by New-Brunswick, the District of Maine, New-Hampshire, Vermont, and New-York; west, by Upper Canada.

The line which divides Upper from Lower Canada, commences at a stone boundary, on the north bank of the Lake St. Francis, at the

Cove west of *Pointe au Boudet*, thence in a northerly course until it strikes the Ottowa river; it ascends the said river into the Lake Temiscaning; and from the head of the said lake by a line drawn due north, until it strikes the boundary line of Hudson's Bay or New-Britain.

It is divided into *six* districts, (which are subdivided into counties and townships) viz. *Montreal*, bordering on Upper Canada; *Three-Rivers*, adjoining it on the east; *Quebeck* next eastward. These three districts extend across Lower Canada, from N. to S. and are intersected by the St. Lawrence. East of Quebeck district, extending along the north bank of the St. Lawrence to its mouth, is *Northumberland*, and on the south side opposite, is *Cornwallis*; east of which is the district and county of *Gaspee*, on the point of land, almost encompassed by the river and Gulf of St. Lawrence; and the bay of Chaleurs.

Rivers.] St. Lawrence is one of the largest rivers in North-America. It issues from Lake Ontario, forming the outlet of the long chain of great lakes, which separate U. Canada from the United States. From Lake Ontario to Montreal it has the name of Iroquois, and taking a north-east course embosoms the island of Montreal; just above which it receives Ottawa or Grand River, from the W. and forms many fertile islands. From Montreal it assumes the name of St. Lawrence, and continuing the same course passes by Quebeck, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, and is so far navigable for large vessels. Having received in its course beside Ottawa, St. John's, Seguina, Despraires, Trois Rivieres, and innumerable other smaller streams, it falls into the ocean at Cape Rosieras, by a mouth about 90 miles broad, in which is the island of Anticosti. In its course it forms a great variety of bays, harbours and islands, many of them fruitful and extremely pleasant. The St. Lawrence may be classed with the most noble rivers in the world; its waters flow 2000 miles before they reach the ocean: the commercial advantages from such a situation increase in proportion to the population of its banks, The Indian trade, in a great measure, takes its current down the St. Lawrence, particularly since vessels of a considerable size are constantly building for the navigation of the lakes. [*Smyth.*]

The celebrated Falls of Montmorency are situated upon a river of the same name, which empties into the St. Lawrence on its north-easterly side, in the district of Beaupour, L. Canada, about 3 leagues below Quebeck, and from their beauty, magnificence and astonishing height, merit the attention of the admirers of nature. The falls are distant about 20 rods from the confluence of the Montmorency with the St. Lawrence, and may be distinctly viewed as you sail down the latter river. The banks of the river Montmorency are perfectly perpendicular both below and above the falls, and are composed of a *soft stone*, resembling in colour and texture, the stones brought, and so much esteemed, from the Connecticut river. This softness of the stones, and the rapidity of the current, have occasioned the most perfect regularity in the banks, which are nearly as smooth as if they had been under the hand of an artist. The river does not exceed 50 yards in width; but the rapidity of it is such, that the body of water,

which is precipitated over the falls, is very great. About 50 feet above the perpendicular cascade, the water begins to tumble over rocks at an angle of about 45 degrees, till it arrives to its great leap, where it falls in one unbroken, uninterrupted sheet to the bottom. The height of the perpendicular fall has been distinctly measured, which may be done with much more accuracy than those of Niagara, and from the result of the mensuration it is ascertained, that the height is at least 240 feet, and is probably greater than that of any other hitherto discovered. These falls may be viewed to more advantage than any other in America, as Gen. Haldeman, when governour of Canada, erected a summer-house, which by means of long fills upon the bank, is projected directly over the river, and within a few feet of the falls. If these falls are inferior to those of Niagara, in point of grandeur and sublimity, they certainly rival them in beauty, and excel them in height. They will therefore be visited by all travellers into this part of America, who are admirers of the stupendous and wonderful works of the God of nature.

[*John Lowell, Esq.*]

Climate.] Winter continues with such severity from December to April, as that the largest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet deep during the winter. But the air is so serene and clear, and the inhabitants so well defended against the cold, that this season is neither unhealthy nor unpleasant. The spring opens suddenly, and vegetation is surprizingly rapid. The summer is delightful except that a part of it is extremely hot.

Face of the Country.] The forests are numerous, but never attain the luxuriant growth of warmer climates. The family of firs and other evergreens form the largest proportion of their woods. Next to these are the sugar maple, the red maple, birch and elm. The numerous species of oak, so plenty and so excellent in the United States, are unknown or contracted into useless shrubs. The sassafras, laurel and red mulberry shoot their trembling sprouts in the islands of St. Lawrence, but the winter generally destroys what grew in the summer. The ash is found here, with juniper, cranberries, and a vine which bears a small and not unpleasant grape. [*Pinkerton.*]

Soil and Produce.] Though the climate is cold and the winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, and in many parts fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grain, fruits and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The isle of Orleans, near Quebeck, and the lands upon the river St. Lawrence and other rivers, are remarkable for the richness of the soil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and feed great numbers of great and small cattle.

Animals.] See this article under the head of the United States.

Principal Towns.] *Quebeck*, the capital not only of Lower Canada, but of all British America, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, which is partly of marble and partly of slate. The town is divided into Upper and Lower. Near it is a fine lead mine. This city contained, in the year 1784, 6,472 inhabitants, but now

has more than 10,000, two thirds of whom are French. At the time when the city was founded, in 1608, the tide, it is said, reached the foot of the rock; but since that time the river has sunk so far, that a large spot of ground is left dry, and on this a large suburb is built, which is styled the Lower Town, which stands at the foot of a rocky precipice, about 48 feet high. The houses in the Lower Town (as also those in the Upper) are of stone, strong and well built, and chiefly inhabited by merchants, being conveniently near their business. The fortifications are extensive but irregular. The natural situation of the town renders its defence easy. If attacked by ships from the river, their guns cannot injure the works of the upper town, though the ships themselves would be liable to great injury from the cannon and bombs from these elevated ramparts. The lower town is defended by a platform flanked with two bastions, which at high water and spring tides are almost level with the surface of the water. A little above the bastion, to the right, is a half bastion, cut out of the rock; a little higher a large battery; and higher still a square fort, the most regular of all the fortifications, and in which the governour resides. The passages which form a communication between these works are extremely rugged. The rock which separates the upper from the lower town, extends, with a bold and steep front, a considerable distance westward, along the river St. Lawrence. The lower town is well supplied with water, which is sometimes scarce in the upper town. This city was besieged by the British in 1711, without success; but was taken by them, in Sept. 1754, when the brave Gen. Wolf, who commanded the army of besiegers, lost his life. In Dec. 1775, it was attacked by the Americans under the command of the brave Gen. Montgomery, who was slain, and his army repulsed. N. lat. 46° 48′ 39″, W. long. 71° 12′ 6″. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a sudden to about a mile wide. The haven which lies opposite the town is safe and commodious, and is from 20 to 25 fathoms deep. A large garrison is kept here; this with the retinue of the governour, courts &c. render the place gay and lively. The markets are well supplied, the little carts being often drawn by dogs. The falls of the river Montmorency; and other scenery of nature, present a prospect here sublimely beautiful. [*Pinkerton.*]

From Quebeck to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in sailing up the river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way, several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, shew themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well settled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters live wholly within themselves. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After passing the Richelieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood only in the summer months.

The town called Trois Rivieres, is about half way between Quebeck and Montreal. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who by means of these rivers come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country is pleasant; and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides the river.

Montreal, the second city in rank in Lower Canada, stands on an island in the river St. Lawrence, which is 10 leagues in length and 4 in breadth, and has its name from a very high mountain about the middle of it, which it seems to overlook, like a monarch from his throne; hence the French called it *Mont-real*, or *Royal Mountain*. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well that the whole island had become a delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the convenience of life. The city, around which is a very good wall, built by Louis XIV. of France, forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well formed streets; and when taken by the British, the houses were built in a very handsome manner; and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southernmost side of the river, as the hill on the side of which the town stands falls gradually to the water. Montreal contains 14,000 inhabitants. A regiment of men are stationed here, and the government of the place borders on the military. It is about half a league from the south shore of the river, 170 miles S. W. of Quebeck, Trois Rivieres being about half way; 110 N. by W. of Crown Point; 308 N. by W. of Boston, and 350 N. by E. of Niagara. N. lat. 45° 35′ W. long. 73° 11′. The river St. Lawrence is about 3 miles wide at Montreal. There is an island near the middle of the river, opposite the city, at the lower end of which is a mill with 8 pair of stones, all kept in motion at the same time, by 1 wheel. The works are said to have cost 11,000l. sterling. A large mound of stone, &c. built out into the river, stops a sufficiency of water to keep the mill in continual motion.

Government and Population.] By the Quebeck Act, passed by the parliament of Great-Britain in the year 1791, so much of the act of the 14th of George III. passed in the year 1774, as relates to the appointment of a council for the government of the province of Quebeck, is repealed; and it is enacted that there shall be within each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, a legislative council and an assembly, who, with the consent of the governour, appointed by the king, shall have power to make laws. The governour may give or withhold his Majesty's assent to bills passed by the legislative council and assembly, or reserve them for his Majesty's pleasure. Bills reserved are to have no force till his Majesty's assent is signified by the governour, which, to be valid, must be signified within two years from the time the bill is presented to the governour. The governour must transmit to the secretary of state copies of such bills as have been assented to, which his Majesty in council may declare his disallowance of within two years from the receipt.

The legislative council is to consist of not fewer than seven members for Upper, and fifteen for Lower Canada, to be summoned by

the governour, who must be authorised by the king. Such members are to hold their seats for life, unless forfeited by four years continual absence, or by swearing allegiance to some foreign power. The king may annex to hereditary titles of honour the right of being summoned to the legislative council.

The house of assembly is to consist of not less than sixteen members from Upper, and not less than fifty from Lower Canada, chosen by the freeholders in the several towns and districts. The council and assembly are to be called together at least once in every year, and every assembly is to continue four years, unless sooner dissolved by the governour. All questions are to be decided by a majority of votes of the members present. His Majesty may authorise the governour to fix the time and place of holding the elections : (subject, however, to such provisions as may hereafter be made by the legislature) ; and to fix the times and places of holding the sessions of the assembly, and to prorogue and dissolve the same whenever he shall judge it necessary.

The governour, together with such of the executive council as shall be appointed by the king, for the affairs of each province, are to be a court of civil jurisdiction for hearing and determining appeals, subject however to such appeals from their judgment as heretofore existed. All lands in Upper Canada are to be granted hereafter in free and common soccage ; and also in Lower Canada, when the grantee shall desire it, subject nevertheless to alterations by an act of the legislature.

British America is superintended by an officer styled governour-general of the four British provinces in North-America, who, besides other powers, is commander in chief of all the British troops in the four provinces and the governments attached to them, and Newfoundland. Each of the provinces has a lieutenant-governour, who, in the absence of the governour-general, has all the powers requisite to a chief magistrate. The province of Lower Canada, in 1784, contained 113,012 souls. It has greatly increased since.

Religion.] As many as about nine tenths of the inhabitants of Lower Canada are Roman Catholicks, who enjoy under the present government the same provision, rights and privileges, as were granted them in 1774, by the act of the 14th of George III. The rest of the people are Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and a few of almost all the different sects of Christians. In the colony are twelve clergymen of the Church of England, including the bishop of Quebeck. The Roman Catholick are 126. [*Pinkerton.*]

Agreeably to constitution, his Majesty may authorise the governour to make allotments of lands, for the support of a Protestant clergy in each province, out of the crown lands already granted ; and to the same purpose is to be appropriated the amount of one seventh of the value of all future grants of lands. His Majesty may authorise the governour, with the advice of the executive council, to erect parsonages, according to the establishment of the Church of England, within every township or parish already formed, or which may hereafter be formed, and to endow them with so much of the lands appropriated as aforesaid as they shall judge to be expedient ; and also to

present to every such parsonage a minister of the Church of England, duly ordained, who is to hold and enjoy in the same manner, and upon the same conditions, as incumbents in England. But presentations to parsonages, and the enjoyment of them, are to be subject to the ecclesiastical jurisdiction granted to the bishop of Nova-Scotia.

Trade.] The amount of the exports from the province of Quebeck, in the year 1786, was 343,262l. 19s. 6d. The amount of imports in the same year was 325,116l. The exports consisted of wheat, flour, biscuit, flaxseed, lumber of various kinds, fish, pot-ash, oil, ginseng, and other medicinal roots, but principally of furs and peltries, to the amount of 285,977l. The imports consisted of rum, brandy, molasses, coffee, sugar, wines, tobacco, salt, chocolate, provisions for the troops, and dry goods.

For the following official information respecting the exports and imports of this part of the British Dominions, I am indebted to the politeness of Lewis Lyman, Esq. of Montreal.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS. PORT OF QUEBECK, FROM THE YEAR 1793 TO 1802, INCLUSIVE.

Exports.	1793	1794	1795	1796	1797	1798	1799	1800	1801	1802
Vessels—No.	118	116	128	71	105	91	138	153	188	211
Tonnage—No.	18,715	16,126	19,545	11,789	15,668	13,939	19,537	20,725	27,986	35,754
Men—No.	1,076	764	1,067	639	901	760	1,089	1,179	1,522	1,852
Wheat—bushels	487,099	414,551	394,725	3,106	31,449	91,727	128,870	217,125	472,723	1,010,033
Flour—barrels	10,916	13,787	17,967	4,352	13,932	9,530	14,475	20,271	38,146	28,301
Biscuit—cwts.	9,822	15,047	19,722	3,882	8,147	12,165	21,535	24,623	32,303	22,051
Pease—bushels	182	832	3,189	271	1,226	3,244	495	3,193	6,559	424
Oats—do.	3,043	1,135	1,129		1,490	2,715	476	5,517	5,013	1,898
Flaxseed—do.	17,465	9,225	11,460	10,303	5,054	5,317	2,329	326	9,079	5,102
Barley—do.							70	1,382	3,744	5,585
Indian Corn—do.		50	32	90	192	794	1,248	60	4,408	1,009
Beef & Pork—barrels	345	607	1,451	927	370	590	1,284	516	1,412	1,265
Butter & Lard—firkins		14	553	20	50	905	250	389	531	426
Soap & Candles—boxes		38	1,222	513	150	635	628	200	581	438
Ale and Porter—casks	32	3	70	4	400	57?	254	163	12	162
Salt—bushels		6,800							9,916	7,800
Essence Spruce—cases	76		62		470	340	397	143	83	79
Fish, pickled—barrels	2,222	315	1,300	356	669	784	572	413	522	479
——, dry—cwts.	2,918	1,601	1,517	330	52	1,720	5,713	705	862	495
Oil, fish—tons	206	106	293	198	215	297	249	700	288	128
——, Seal—gallons	148	206	209	238	52	1,700	113	55	102	99
Timber { oak pieces	1,240	729	316	1,394	2,888	2,221	2,299	1,633	1,268	1,607
Timber { pine do.			620		255	3	104	12	1,061	1,035
Plank & Boards { oak No.			500	372	45	19	105	1,087	494 feet	2,000
Plank & Boards { pine No.	22,059	15,863	30,000	18,286	47,691	11,769	52,140	34,863	60,033	104,735

Staves & Headings—pieces	294,608	151,354	593,622	818,799	734,198	446,469	703,778	542,656	535,547	597,062
Handspikes—pieces			676	4,780	2,177	5,110	12,265	20,420	14,986	9,011
Oars—pairs		305							1,469	401
Masts—No.	14	4	2		3	4		4	57	34
Spars—do.	92	6	94	85		61	143	250	298	124
Hoops—do.	33,775	74,600	27,000	18,550	7,100	37,600	796,000	27,000	11,500	57,250
Shingles—do.	139,970	90,930							67,000	78,900
Madeira—packs, No.	675	1,384	973	237	439	3,088	1,852	2,256	1,895	593
Cattle } Horses—No.	6	42	2	10	15	44	8	32	192	139
Cattle } horned, sheep & hogs	52	131				110			13	51
Pot and Pearl Ashes—cwts.	9,702	7,824	7,746	12,358	14,933	22,051	24,355	29,142	25,620	16,920
Whalebone & Fins—packs		30								
Scantling—feet	2,420	4,095								
Anchor Stocks—No.		38								
Beaver	182,246	155,599	144,945	130,820	184,612	127,440	117,165	135,043	119,965	144,189
Martin	26,680	37,785	45,214	31,143	54,218	52,641	35,267	40,345	24,451	23,808
Otter	22,758	17,387	18,533	16,107	16,600	15,848	16,966	19,109	21,837	19,855
Mink	23,223	12,837	8,946	9,693	10,690	9,128	8,326	8,428	10,690	11,148
Fisher	5,543	4,795	6,138	3,851	6,200	6,319	5,142	5,937	5,422	6,407
Fox	956	6,574	8,809	8,115	15,744	12,000	7,811	11,973	19,290	7,337
Bear	20,784	16,638	7,936	17,228	18,000	17,987	23,127	26,575	25,299	18,923
Deer	126,505	130,513	165,483	168,035	171,424	161,486	173,065	204,587	227,205	184,388
Raccoon	190,476	125,781	124,839	135,835	189,992	194,237	135,468	166,984	92,345	147,882
Cat	10,917	13,953	9,490	8,800	8,359	9,952	13,019	16,607	18,704	17,337
Elk	446	695	530	829	1,046	931	1,114	856	1,140	4,482
Wolf	9,777	7,618	5,662	6,704	12,120	8,782	5,866	2,362	2,875	4,562
Wolverine	5,756								1,252	1,482
Carcajoux		981	948	938	823	735	878	2,075		

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS. PORT OF QUEBECK.

Exports.	1793	1794	1795	1796	1797	1798	1799	1800	1801	1802
Badger—No.									219	
Kitt									9,130	5,719
Seal { dry	265	2,395	526	1,390	1,887	2,482	3,702	3,707	1,505	892
Seal { salted										1,470
Hare and Squirrel	6,620	546	651	5,407	2,155	3,527	3,624	1,991		3,356
Musk Rat	32,659	28,230	83,009	96,263	184,520	71,506	8,776	12,397		26,289
Buffaloe		2								
Tiger		1								
Ox Hides				140	174	208	57	310		
Castoreum	5,546	120	1,823	989	2,015	1,715	2,944	1,338	192	204
Ginseng { barrels.										2
Ginseng { lbs.		1,874		200		502	752	967	200	122

N. B. The Exports are exclusive of salmon, codfish, oil, &c. &c. exported from Gaspee, Chaleur Bay and Coast of Labrador direct; estimated at 100,000l. annually.

Imports.	1793	1794	1795	1796	1797	1798	1799	1800	1801	1802	*Duties.*
Vessels—No.	113	114	117	67	88	78	125	140	175	198	free
Tonnage—do.	15,271	16,827	18,023	11,050	13,349	11,882	17,941	16.837	25,726	33,139	do.
Men—do.	1,012	982	905	615	780	667	1,017	998	1,548	1,829	do.
Wines { Madeira gals.	42,680	12,705	18,861	20,804	25,561	17,031	17,370	22,723	52,929	21,474	6d.pr.gal.
Wines { Madeira gals.											7l. pr. tun.
Wines { other—do.	151,320	75,655	102,729	132,699	65,585	208,474	136,012	137,214	108,314	170,980	4d.pr.gal.

Brandy and Gin—do.	660	3,730	326	1,298	16,043	11,402	32,957	37,351	7,114	13,806	1s. 4d. pr. gal.
Rum—do.	320,620	391,370	116,124	248,569	162,684	240,584	492,969	169,777	302,930	384,937	8d. pr. do.
Molasses—do.	25,740	50,220	17,767	62,898	63,525	19,422	69,165	37,073	65,698	49,094	6d. pr. do.
Sugar loaf—lbs.	18,650	17,874	107,180	120,656	94,080	141,990	126,399	91,831	67,938	165,988	1d. pr. lb.
Sugar Musca.—do	107,520	125,431	76,463	126,132	44,458	158,414	134,384	233,152	499,387	426,891	4s. 8d. p. cwt.
Coffee—lbs.	16,540	11,450	18,404	75,746	21,814	34,080	48,847	35,079	50,816	29,359	2¾d. pr. lb.
Tobacco leaf—lbs.	82,600	7,987	244,975	149,547	84,747	163,961	79,500	158,258	84,148	140,692	2½d. pr. lb.
Tobacco manufact.									47,283	26,285	2½d. pr. lb.
Cards—packs			55,360	3,696	17,419	22,308	13,736	10,116	7,020	17,400	2d. pr. pack.
Salt—bushels	150,732	58,004	35,450	31,606	38,513	69,444	83,536	102,975	136,010	101,064	

N. B. Besides the importation of East-India and European manufactured goods, estimated to be from 300,000 to 330,000 annually.

It is understood that the above abstract gives a view of the commerce of both Lower and Upper Canada. The reader will be able from the above to form a correct idea of the progress of trade in this part of the British Dominions, which is rapidly increasing in population, particularly emigrations from the United States.

History.] This country was discovered by the English as early as about 1497, and settled by the French 1608, who kept possession of it till 1760, when it was taken by the British, and at the treaty of Paris, in 1763 was ceded, by France, to the crown of England, to whom it has ever since belonged.

For the best history of this country the reader is referred to Charlevoix's history of it; to the Encyclopedia Britannica; articles, Canada, Quebeck, and America, No. 195, 200 and 207.

UPPER CANADA.*

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length unknown
Breadth 525
} between { 74° and indefinitely W. lon. fr. Lon.
42° 30′ and 49° N. lat.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED on the south by the United States; east by Lower Canada, north by New-Britain, west by regions unknown.

Divisions and Improvements.] This province is divided into nineteen counties, viz.

Glengary,	Hastings,
Stormount,	Northumberland,
Dundas,	Durham,
Grenville,	York,
Leeds,	Lincoln,
Frontinack,	Norfolk,
Ontario,	Suffolk,
Addington,	Essex,
Lenox,	Kent.
Prince Edward,	

These counties are divided into townships, ordinarily, of 9 by 12 miles. From the lake St. Francis, up the St. Lawrence to lake Ontario, the northern bank of the river is laid out in regular counties and townships; the land is for the most part fertile, and under as high a state of cultivation as can be expected from the time it has been settled; the first improvements being made since the peace in 1783, when all was in a state of nature and heavily timbered. There are now between 30 and 40 mills in the extent mentioned on this river, the most remarkable of which are on the Gananoque. Good roads

* According to Father Hennepin, "the Spaniards were the first who discovered Canada; but at their first arrival, having discovered nothing considerable in it, they abandoned the country and called it *Il Capo di Nada*, that is, *a Cape of Nothing*; hence by corruption sprung the word CANADA."

have been opened and bridges well constructed; some of them over wet lands, and the mouths of creeks and rivers of very considerable extent; and the first settlers have been able, by their very great industry, to erect comfortable houses. In the rear of these townships on the St. Lawrence are upwards of twenty others, in which settlements have commenced, to the southward of the Ottawa or Grand river, which many of them front; others are well supplied by the waters of the Radeau, and river Petite Nation, with the Gananoque lakes and streams, all of which afford abundance of situations for mills. These rivers, like most others in Canada, abound in carp, sturgeon, perch, and cat fish; the ponds affording green and other turtle, with fish of various sorts.

Principal Towns.] Newark is situated in lat. 43° north, on the west bank of Niagara River, as it enters Lake Ontario. The town extends along the lake for a mile. It contained, in 1798, 60 dwelling-houses, with a gaol and court-house under the same roof. Here is also a printing-office and two churches, one for Episcopalians, and one for Presbyterians.

Queenston stands on Niagara River, 7 miles above Newark. This is called the lower landing. Here vessels discharge their cargoes, and take in the furs, collected from 300 to 1500 miles back. It is a place of great trade. Several vessels are seen unloading at the same time; 60 waggon loads in a day are sometimes carried to the upper landing place on Chipawa Creek, 3 miles above the falls. From Chipawa, the merchandize is transported in batteaux to Fort Erie, 18 miles; whence it is shipped for Detroit and Michillimakkinack.

York, formerly *Torento*, is situated on an excellent harbour of Ontario, opposite to Niagara; 40 miles distant by water; 100 by land. This town was laid out in 1791, and now contains about 300 families. The legislature met here for the first time in June, 1797; it is the seat of government. York is between 30 and 40 miles north-west of Newark; 80 miles W. by N. of Oswego; 35 N. N. W. of Niagara, and 120 W. S. W. of Kingston. The vestiges of a French fort, which was called Torento, are still discernible here. York is in lat. 43° 45′ N. long. 4° W. of Philadelphia.

Kingston is in about 44° 8′ of N. lat. and 75° 41′ of W. lon. is situated at the head of the St. Lawrence, on the north shore, opposite Wolf Island. It occupies the site of old fort Frontenack, was laid out in 1784, and is now of considerable size. It has a barrack for troops, a house for the commanding officer, a hospital, several storehouses, and an episcopal church, of the established religion. The ruins of the French works are yet to be seen, as well as that of a breastwork thrown up by General Bradstreet, on the east side of the town. It has an excellent harbour, where the king's shipping on Lake Ontario for the most part winter. Large vessels seldom go below Kingston, although it is navigable to Oswegatchie, about 70 miles down the river; the stores, provisions, &c. which are lodged in the depot at this place being usually transported there in boats from Montreal. About Kingston there are several valuable quarries of limestone, and the country, in general, is rather stony, which is not found

detrimental to the crops. It is 200 miles S. of Montreal, and 150 northward of Niagara.

Rivers, Islands, Bays and Springs.] In this province the river *St. Lawrence*, already described, issues from Lake Ontario, where it is about 10 miles wide, including the islands; and above the Thousand Isles, it is no where less than 6 miles wide. Thence it is about a mile and a half in width; but in the rapids it is unequal, in some places not more than 700 yards. In these places the current is swift and deep. These rapids afford many excellent mill seats, some of which, on the British side, are occupied. This river, as might be expected from the peculiarity of its source, is never affected by rains or melting snows. Those who have resided on its banks for 15 years have never known it rise or fall 6 inches.

Ottawa is a large river, which, issuing from Lake Temiscaning, empties itself into the St. Lawrence 9 miles from Montreal. It has many rapids and falls. *Grand River*, having its source from Lake St. Clie, passing through the Rice Lake, by the Bay of Quinti, mingles with the waters of Ontario. The *Thames* is a considerable stream, which, from the eastward, runs into Lake St. Clair.

Niagara River and Falls. Niagara River connects the north-east end of Lake Erie with Lake Ontario, and is about 30 miles in length, from Fort Erie to Niagara Fort, and forms a part of the boundary between the United States and Upper Canada. It receives Chippeway or Welland River from the W. and Tonewanto Creek from the E. and embosoms Great and Navy Islands. Fort Slusher stands on the E. side of this river, near Navy Island. The Falls in this river, are opposite Fort Slusher, about 7 or 8 miles S. of Lake Ontario, and form the greatest curiosity which this or any other country affords. In order to have a tolerable idea of this stupendous fall of water, it will be necessary to conceive that part of the country in which Lake Erie is situated to be elevated above that which contains Lake Ontario about 300 feet; the slope which separates the upper and lower country is generally very steep, and in many places almost perpendicular: it is formed by horizontal strata of stone, great part of which is lime-stone. The slope may be traced by the N. side of Lake Ontario, near the bay of Torento, round the W. end of the Lake; thence the direction is generally E. Between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie it crosses the strait of Niagara and the Gennessee River; after which it becomes lost in the country towards Seneca Lake. It is to this slope the country is indebted both for the Cataract of Niagara and the great Falls of Gennessee. The Cataract of Niagara, some have supposed, was formerly at the northern side of the slope near the landing; and that from the great length of time, the quantity of water, and the distance which it falls, the solid stone is worn away for about 7 miles up towards Lake Erie,* and a chasm is formed which no person can approach without terror. Down this chasm the water rushes with a most astonishing noise and velocity, after it

* Gen. Lincoln, who visited and examined these Falls in 1794, says, "On a careful examination of the banks of the river, there appears to be no good foundation for this opinion."

makes the great pitch. Here the fancy is constantly engaged in the contemplation of the most romantick and awful prospect imaginable; when the eye catches the falls, the contemplation is instantly arrested, and the beholder admires in silence. The river is about 742 yards wide at the falls. The perpendicular pitch of this vast body of water produces a sound that is frequently heard at the distance of 20 miles, and in a clear day and fair wind, 40, and even 50 miles. A perceptible, tremulous motion in the earth is felt for several rods round. A heavy cloud or fog is constantly ascending from the falls, in which rainbows may be always seen when the sun shines. This fog or spray, in the winter season, falls upon the neighbouring trees, where it congeals, and produces a most beautiful crystalline appearance: this remark is applicable also to the Falls of Gennessee. It is conjectured that the water must fall at least 65 feet in the chasm; the perpendicular pitch at the cataract is 150 feet; other accounts say only 137 feet; to these add 58 feet, which the water falls the last half mile immediately above the falls, and we have 273, which the water falls in the distance of 7 miles and a half. Animals swimming near the Rapids above the Great Cataract are instantly hurried to destruction. Just below the Great Pitch, the water and foam may be seen puffed up in large spherical figures; they burst at the top, and project a column of the spray to a prodigious height, and then subside, and are succeeded by others which burst in like manner. This appearance is most remarkable about half way between the island that divides the falls and the west side of the strait, where the largest column of water descends. The descent into the chasm of this stupendous cataract is very difficult, on account of the great height of the banks; but when once a person has descended, he may go up to the foot of the Falls, and take shelter behind the descending column of water, between that and the precipice, where there is space sufficient to contain a number of people in perfect safety, and where conversation may be held without interruption from the noise, which is less here than at a considerable distance. On Christmas night, 1795, a severe shock of an earthquake was felt here, and by which a large piece of the rock that forms the famous cataract was broken off. From the falls to Fort Erie is south. Above the falls are several islands. Strawberry island is so called from the abundance of that fruit which it produces. Fifty tons of wild grass and timothy might be annually cut here.

Great or *Grand Island* is of a triangular form, 12 miles long, and in some places 6 wide. Excepting a cranberry swamp in the middle, the soil is excellent. This and all the islands of the river, excepting Navy Island, belong to the United States. The channel on its western shore is deeper, 8 miles shorter, and more frequented than the other. *Navy Island* contains 315 acres. The soil is a black sand and clay, remarkably rich. It abounds in good oak and black walnut timber. Several English vessels have been built here, which was the occasion of its present name. *Goat Island*, containing only a few acres, lies at the pitch of the celebrated falls, and for 5 or 6 rods divides the rushing waters into two different columns. The largest is on the west side.

The *Bay of Quinti* is the most important in Upper Canada. It may throughout be considered as a harbour, formed by a large peninsula, consisting of the township of Ameliasburgh, Sophiasburgh, and Marysburgh, extending easterly from an isthmus, where there is a portage at the head, or west end of the bay, to Point Pleasant, the easternmost extremity of the peninsula, opposite to Amherst Island. The river Trent empties into the bay, westward of the portage, and supplies it with the waters of the Rice Lake. Westward of the portage, in Lake Ontario, is the harbour of Presque Isle de Quinti, now called New-Castle. This peninsula of the three townships, called the county of Prince Edward, extending from the main land like an arm, hides from the Lake Ontario the townships of Sidney, Thurlow, Adolphustown and Fredericksburgh, which front the north side of the bay. The river Trent, discharging itself between the townships of Murray and Sidney, finds its passage between the county of Prince Edward, and the townships on the north side of the bay; its stream is increased by the Appannee River, running in from Camden, and dividing Richmond from Fredericksburgh, joins the waters of the bay near John's Island, a small isle opposite to a settlement of Mohawks, so called after Capt. John, a Mohawk chief, who resided there, and who with some others of that nation, had a tract of land given them by the king of Great Britain, of about 9 miles in front on the bay, and about 12 miles deep; preferring this situation, they separated from the rest of their nation, who were settled on the Grand River, or Ouse.

The fertility of the soil about the bay of Quinti is generally allowed. The land is rich, easily wrought, and produces several crops without manure; 25 bushels of wheat are often produced from an acre. The timber is much like that of the other parts of the province, oak, elm, hickory, maple, &c. The bay is narrow throughout, and about 50 miles long, all which distance it is navigable for those small vessels which are used on the lakes. An apparent tide is frequently noticed in the bay of Quinti, not dissimilar to those observed in some of the upper lakes. The bay abounds with wild fowl, and fish of various kinds. The river Trent affords a salmon fishery. In passing from the head of the bay of Quinti into Lake Ontario, you cross a very short portage, in front of the township of Murray, being the isthmus between it and the peninsula of Prince Edward. At the end of the portage, and before you enter Lake Ontario, is a small lake, exceedingly beautiful, and the land on its banks extremely good; to the northward of this portage it is proposed to make a canal to connect the waters of the bay with those of the lake. A little to the westward of the portage and proposed canal, is the harbour of Newcastle, a situation well suited for commerce and protection, and sheltered from all winds. A knoll on the peninsula affords a healthy site for the town. [*Smyth.*]

On a creek, 15 miles from Newark, is a *Salt Spring*, from which salt is made. Several other salt springs are found in the province.

Lakes.] These are numerous. The great lakes, Ontario, Erie, Huron and Superior, through which passes the line forming the northern boundary of the United States, all lie partly in this province.

The Rice Lake sends its waters into Ontario by the Grand River. Lake Simcoe enters Huron by Glocester Bay. Lake Nipissing and Temiscaning enter the river St. Lawrence by the rapid current of Ottawa River. The waters of this province are richly stored with a variety of fish, which are exceedingly valuable to the new settlers. Among many other species, white fish, salmon, bass and sturgeon are common.

Soil and Face of the Country.] This country, in general, may be called level; in many parts but a little elevated above the lakes. On the north of Lake Ontario it is evident, in many places, that the water once overspread that region. Many smaller lakes and swamps still remain; but where the land is sufficiently dry, it is good. As you advance from the lake you find a circle of better soil. The lands on Holland River, which runs into Lake Simcoe, are of a superior quality, and will probably soon be settled. In the neighbourhood of Kingston and the Bay of Quinti, or Canty, a settlement was formed soon after the peace of 1783. The farmers here live as independently as in New-England. The lands between lakes Erie and Huron have been known to produce wheat 18 years, successively, without manure. In the vicinity of Superior and the Lake of the Woods, are extensive plains, destitute of wood, excepting scattered tufts of trees. These plains are covered with luxuriant grass, affording rich pasturage to numerous herds of buffaloes.

Minerals and Produce.] Iron ore has been found plenty, but not wrought in this province. The whole of this country produces good wheat, Indian corn, flax, and grass in abundance. Hops of a good quality grow spontaneously; also plums, mulberries, blackberries, strawberries, raspberries and grapes. Orchards begin to bear fruit. Peaches, cherries and currants are plenty. Good pork they often have, fatted entirely in the woods.

Government.] In the year 1790 this province received from the British government a constitution satisfactory to the people. The government consists of a governour, legislative council, and house of assembly, chosen for four years by the people. They meet annually in the month of May for the purposes of legislation. Their privileges are greater than were those of the American colonies previous to the revolution. The British parliament have removed the right of taxation. The government of England bear the whole expense of the civil establishment: they pay even for the surveying of their lands. There is no land tax, quit-rent, nor any other, excepting for the regulation of internal police in counties, and smaller corporations. Weekly courts, called courts of request, are held through the province, by two justices of the peace, who have cognizance of all debts under half a joe. There are district courts every three months, in which a judge presides, and gives trial by a jury of twelve, in sums not exceeding 24l. York currency. From this court there is no appeal. Greater sums are tried by a jury before the chief justice and two associate judges, who make an annual circuit through the province. From them is an appeal to the governour and council. The people regulate all local matters to the several towns, choosing their constables, surveyors, &c. as in the United States.

Militia.] The militia in the several districts meet annually. All the males, excepting Friends, Tunkers and Menonists, from 16 to 45, bear arms.

Curiosities.] Among many others, a spring, 2 miles above Niagara Falls, emits a *gas*, or inflammable air, which being confined in a pipe will boil water in fifteen minutes. It was discovered, when clearing away and burning the brush; they observed this spring to burn for several days after the wood around was consumed. Near Burlington Bay is a volcano, where the Messasague Indians sacrifice to Manitor, or the bad spirit. They say the eruptions are frequent, with noise like thunder.

Religion.] This extensive country, for the greater part, is destitute of a regular gospel ministry; of course, many are deplorably ignorant of all religion. There are in very few places, at Newark, Kingston, and at a German settlement, regular clergymen; but Methodism is the prevailing religion of Upper Canada. Their teachers are illiterate, rude in their manners, and often exceptionable in their lives. The body of the people, in this province, are emigrants from New-England and New-Jersey; very few are Catholicks. Their towns, many of them, bear the names of those left by the emigrants in New-England.

NEWFOUNDLAND ISLAND.

NEWFOUNDLAND is situated to the east of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, between 46° 45′, and 51° 46′ north lat. and between 52° 31′, and 59° 40′ west long. from Greenwich; separated from Labrador, or New-Britain, by the straits of Bellisle; and from Canada, by the Bay of St. Lawrence; being 381 miles long, and from 40 to 287 miles broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. From the soil of this island the British reap no great advantage, for the cold is long continued and severe; and the summer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the soil, at least in those parts of the island which have been explored, is rocky and barren; but amends are made for this defect, by the valuable coast fishery. However, it is watered by several good rivers, and has many large and good harbours. This island, whenever the continent shall come to fail of timber convenient for navigation (which on the sea coast perhaps will be at no very remote period) it is said will afford a large supply for masts, yards, and all sorts of lumber for the West-India trade. But what at present it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fishery of cod carried on upon those shoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great-Britain and the United States, at the lowest computation, annually employ 3000 sail of small craft in this fishery; on board of which, and on shore to cure and pack the fish, are up-

wards of 100,000 hands; so that this fishery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery to the navies of Great-Britain and of the United States. This fishery is computed to increase the national stock of Great-Britain 300,000l. a year in gold and silver, remitted for the cod sold in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy and the Levant. In 1785, Great-Britain employed in this fishery, 292 fishing ships, 85 trading ships, and 58 colony ships, whose tonnage together amounted to 41,990. The same year they carried to foreign markets, 591,276 quintals of fish. [*Chalmers.*] From an account of the whole trade of Newfoundland for the year 1799, taken from the custom-house books, it appears that 340 vessels entered at the custom-house, whose tonnage amounted to 34,225, carrying 2,449 men. Nearly the same number of vessels, of about the same number of tons, and of men, cleared from the custom-house the same year.

There was imported to this island in the course of the year,

44,215 cwt. of bread and flour,	9,856 lbs. of coffee,
13,062 bbls. of beef and pork,	120,663 do. of tobacco,
5,115 cwt. of butter and cheese,	123,939 do. of soap and candles,
566,201 bushels of salt,	1,495 chaldrons of coals,
38,017 lbs. of tea,	1,242 barrels of pitch and tar,
97½ cwt. of refined sugar,	541,856 feet of planks and boards,
1,726 cwt. of Muscovado sugar,	150 thousand of shingles,
168,104 gals. of molasses,	306 masts and spars,
168,936 do. of rum,	417 bullocks and cows,
9,431 do. of gin and brandy,	505 sheep,
20,787 do. of wine,	1,432 bushels Indian corn.
793 hhds. of beer and cider,	

The same year was exported,

453,337 quintals of dry cod fish,	202 barrels of herrings,
13,995 do. of core fish,	3,017 tons of oil,
2,642 tierces of salmon,	74,181 seal skins.

The plenty of cod, both on the great bank and the lesser ones, which lie to the east and south-east of this island, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but several other species of fish, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New-England, and the isle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts.

This island, after various disputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern shores of the island; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated to the

southward of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French, who stipulated to erect no fortifications on these islands, nor to keep more than 50 soldiers to enforce the police. By the last treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fisheries on the north and on the west coasts of the island; and the inhabitants of the United States are allowed the same privileges in fishing, as before their independence. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonavista and St. John's; but not above 1000 families remain here in winter. A small squadron of men-of-war are sent out every spring to protect the fisheries and inhabitants, the admiral of which, for the time being, is governour of the island, besides whom there are two lieutenant-governours, one at Placentia, and the other at St. John's.

THE ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON,

FORMERLY called by the French, *Isle Royal*, lies between lat. 45° 28′ and 47° N. and between 59° 44′ and 61° 29′ W. long. from London, and about 45 leagues to the eastward of Halifax. It is about 109 miles in length; and from 20 to 84 in breadth; and is separated from Nova-Scotia by a narrow strait, called the *Gut of Canso*, which is a communication between the Atlantick Ocean and the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

The shores of the island are bold and safe to approach. On the eastern side the land is low, but on the north-west the cliffs are high. The principal harbours are Arichat, Louisburg, Main, or Dieu Spanish River, and St. Ann's on the eastern side; and on the western side, Port Hood, Margaret and Chetican. The Bras D'Or is a large sheet of water nearly intersecting the island, in a line from north to south, leaving a portage of only a quarter of a mile between the lake and the sea. There are a number of large rivers which empty themselves into the Bras D'Or, and the land on the banks of the lake is considered equal to any in North-America. When the island was in possession of the French, great numbers of masts were cut here and shipped for France.

The harbour of St. Peter's, at the west end of the island, is a very commodious place for carrying on the fishery. This island was considered as annexed to Nova-Scotia in respect to matters of government till 1784, when it was erected into a separate government.

Soil and Productions.] There is a great proportion of arable land on this island; and it abounds in timber and hard wood, such as pine, beach, birch, maple, spruce and fir.

Population, Government, Chief Towns, &c.] On this island there are about 3000 [Pinkerton says 1000] inhabitants, of which number two thirds are French Acadians. The legislative power of the island is in the hands of the lieutenant-governour and council, who are appointed by the king, as are all the other officers of the government. The

expense of the establishment, paid by the British government, amounts annually to 2200l. sterling.

The principal towns are Sydney and Arichat. Sydney is the seat of government, and is built on the south-east branch of Spanish River. Very handsome barracks were erected here in 1785; and at present a garrison is kept here of 200 men, under the command of a major-general, who is president of the council, and who commands in the absence of the lieutenant-governour. At the mouth of Spanish River are the coal mines, which at present are open; they are a Royalty, and the king receives a duty of 4 pistareens on every chaldron raised. The quantity raised annually is about 6000 chaldron. Arichat is the next place in consequence to Sydney. It is situated on the Isle Madam, and entirely inhabited by fishermen. A number of merchants from the island of Jersey and Guernsey carry on the fishery at Arichat; and before the present war loaded from 20 to 25 sail of square-rigged vessels at this port with dry cod-fish; but at present this trade is much declined.

This island, or rather Louisburg, may be considered as the *Dunkirk* of North-America, and the *key* to Canada; and the very valuable fishery in its neighbourhood depends for its protection on the possession of this place, as no nation can carry it on without some convenient harbour of strength to supply and protect it, and Louisburg is the principal one for these purposes.

Trade.] The peltry trade was ever a very inconsiderable object. It consisted only in the skins of a few lynxes, elks, musk-rats, wild-cats, bears, otters, and foxes, both of a red, silver and grey colour. Some of these were procured from a colony of Micmack Indians, who had settled on the island with the French, and never could raise more than 60 men able to bear arms. The rest came from St. John or the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages are now derived from the coal mines which are situated near the entrance of the harbour, the working of which, and the fishery, are the chief employment of the inhabitants. They lie in a horizontal direction; and being no more than six or eight feet below the surface, may be worked without digging deep, or draining off the waters. Notwithstanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New-England, from the year 1745 to 1749, these mines would probably have been forsaken, had not the ships which were sent out to the French islands wanted ballast. In one of these mines, a fire has been kindled, which could never yet be extinguished.

In 1743, while this island belonged to the French, they caught 1,149,000 quintals of dry fish, and 3,500,000 do. of mud-fish, the value of both which, including 3,116¼ tons of train oil, drawn from the blubber, amounted to 926,577l. 10s. sterling, according to the prime cost of the fish at Newfoundland. The whole value of this trade, annually, at that period, amounted to a million sterling. No less than 564 ships, besides shallops, and 27,000 seamen, were employed in this trade. Charlevoix, in his history of France, says, "This fishery is a more valuable source of wealth and power to France, than even the mines of Peru and Mexico would be." At present the inhabitants of this island take about 30,000 quintals of fish, annually, which are

shipped for Spain and the Strait principally by merchants from Jersey (in England) who yearly resort here, and keep stores of supplies for the fishermen.

History.] Though some fishermen had long resorted to this island every summer, the French, who took possession of it in August, 1713, were properly the first settled inhabitants. They changed its name to that of *Isle Royale* and fixed upon Fort Dauphin for their principal settlement. This harbour was two leagues in circumference. The ships came to the very shore, and were sheltered from the winds. Forests, affording oak sufficient to fortify and build a large city, were near at hand; the ground appeared less barren than in other parts, and the fishery was more plentiful. This harbour might have been rendered impregnable at a trifling expense; but the difficulty of approaching it (a circumstance that had at first made a stronger impression than the advantages resulting from it) occasioned it to be abandoned, after great labour had been bestowed upon the undertaking. They then turned their views to Louisburg, the access to which was easier; and convenience was thus preferred to security: The fortification of Louisburg, however, was not begun till 1720.

In the year 1714, some fishermen, who till then had lived in Newfoundland, settled in this island. It was expected that their number would soon have been increased by the Acadians, who were at liberty from the treaties that had been granted them, to remove with all their effects, and even to dispose of their estates; but these hopes were disappointed. The Acadians chose rather to retain their possessions under the dominion of Britain, than to give them up for any precarious advantage they might derive from their attachment to France. Their place was supplied by some distressed adventurers from Europe, who came over from time to time to Cape Breton; and the number of inhabitants gradually increased to 4000. They were settled at Louisburg, Fort Dauphin, Port Toulouse, Neruka, and on all the coasts where they found a proper beach for drying the cod.

This island remained in possession of the French till 1745, when it was captured for the crown of Great-Britain, by a body of troops from New-England, under the command of lieutenant-general William Pepperell. For the authentick particulars of this important and successful expedition, see Hist. Coll. Vol. I. Also Encyclopedia Britannica, article Breton.

NOVA-SCOTIA.

THE Province of Nova-Scotia, or New-Scotland, (so named by Sir William Alexander, to whom it was granted by Charles II. in 1663) was bounded, before the late division was made, as follows: "On the west by a line drawn from Cape Sables across the entrance of the Bay of Fundy to the north of the river St. Croix; by the said

river to its source ; and by a line drawn from thence to the southern boundary of the colony of Quebeck : To the northward, by the said boundary as far as the western extremity of the Bay Des Chaleurs : To the eastward, by the said Bay and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to the cape or promontory, called Cape Breton, in the island of that name including that island, the island of St. John, and all other islands within six leagues of the shores." [*Governour's Proclamation.*]

This tract has a sea coast of 95 leagues on the south, upon the Atlantick Ocean, from Cape Canso east, to Cape Sables west.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		
Length	317	between	43° 30′ and 48° 4′ N. Lat.
Breadth	254		61° and 70° W. Lon. from London.

Divisions, Townships, &c.] In 1783, before the division hereafter mentioned, Nova-Scotia was divided into the following counties and townships, viz.

Counties.	*Townships.*	*By whom settled.*	*Rivers.*
Hants, on the river Avon.	Windsor, Falmouth, Newport	New-Englanders principally from Connecticut after the removal of the French neutrals.	Avon or Pigiguit, St. Croix, Kenetcoot, Cocmiguen, Cacaguet
Halifax. Eastern part of Nova-Scotia.	Halifax		Cobequid
	London Der, Truro	Irish and Scotch	
	Onslow, Colchester	N. Englanders	Shubenaccadie, Petitcodiak, Memramcook
	Lawrence, Southamp. Canso, Tinmouth	European and American Emigrants	
Kings, on the Basin of Minas.	Cornwallis, Horton	N. England people from Conn. & Mass. after the removal of the French neutrals	Percau, Habitant, Canaid, Cornwallis, Salmon River*
Annapolis, on Annapolis river.	Wilmot	Irish and New-Englanders	
	Granville, Annappolis	The descendants of English families intermixed with Acadians.	Annapolis
	Clare	Acadians	
	Moncton	Do.	

* There are settlements of Acadians on all these rivers, whose banks are good land.

Counties.	*Townships.*	*By whom settled.*	*Rivers.*
CUMBERLAND, at the head of Bay of Fundy.	Cumberland	English and New-Englanders	An Lac, Missiquash, Napan, Macon, Memramcook, Petcoudia, Chepodie, Herbert
	Sackville	English	
	Amherst, Hillsboro', Hopewell	English and Irish	
SUNBURY, on the river St. John, north shore of Bay of Fundy.	Conway, Gage Town, Burton, Sunbury, St. Ann's, Wilmot, Newton, Maugerville	New-Englanders	St. John
QUEENS, south side of Bay of Fundy.	Argyle	Scots and Acadians	None
	Yarmouth	New-Englanders	
	Barrington (Sable Isl.)	Quakers from Nantucket	
	Liverpool	New-Englanders	
LUNENBURG, on Mahone Bay.	New Dublin	Irish formerly, now Germans	None
	Lunenburg	Germans	
	Chester, Blandford	New-Englanders	

The tract bounded as before mentioned, and known under the general name of NOVA-SCOTIA, in 1784, was divided into four separate governments, viz. 1. New-Brunswick on the N. W. 2. Nova-Scotia on the S. E. 3. St. John on the N. 4. Cape Breton on the N. E. already described.

PROVINCE OF NEW-BRUNSWICK.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED west, by the District of Maine, from which it is separated by the river St. Croix, and a line drawn due north from its source to Canada line; north by the southern boundary of the Province of Lower Canada, until it touches the sea-shore at the western extremity of Chaleur Bay; then following the various windings of the sea-shore to the Bay of Vert, in the straits of Northumberland; on the south-east it is divided from Nova-Scotia by the several windings of the Missiquash river from its confluence with Beau Basin (at the head of Chignecto channel) to its main source; and from thence by a due east line to the Bay of Vert,

before mentioned: The northern shores of the Bay of Fundy constitute the remainder of the southern boundary. Several islands in Passamaquoddy Bay are also within the limits of the Province.

This province formed a part of the province of Nova-Scotia, until the year 1784, when, for the convenience of the loyalists, who had resorted here from the United States, it was erected into a separate province.

Chief Towns.] The city of St. John, the capital of this province, is situated on high ground, at the mouth of the river St. John. The streets are spacious and regular. It contains upwards of 1000 inhabitants, several well built houses, a handsome church and city hall. This city was incorporated 1785, during the governour's residence there, and is governed by a Mayor, Recorder, six Aldermen, and six Assistants, the two former appointed by the Governour, the latter chosen annually by the inhabitants in their respective wards, into six of which the city is divided, four on the eastern, and two on the western side of the harbour; the two latter comprehend the district originally called *Carleton*, including the ruins of *Fort Frederick*. The tides rise here, sometimes upwards of 30 feet, in consequence of which, this harbour is never obstructed by ice, and open for navigation through the whole winter. A light-house has been erected on Partridge Island, at the entrance of the harbour.

Fredericktон, the present seat of government, formerly called St. Anne's, lies about 80 miles up the river St. John, at the head of sloop navigation. This town is regularly laid out, in spacious streets, crossing each other at right angles, upon a plain. It has a church, an elegant Province Hall, for the accommodation of the General Assembly and Courts of Justice, and several well built houses. It has upwards of 500 inhabitants. In this town and its vicinity, several valuable tracts of land are appropriated for the support of a College, and vested in a corporation, erected by charter for the government of this institution, the foundations of which have been thus wisely laid by the Governour.

St. Andrews, situated in the rear of an island of that name on the east side of an arm (called Scoodick) of the inner bay of Passamaquoddy, is very regularly laid out in the form of an oblong square. It has but few houses, built on a small scale. The few inhabitants it contains are chiefly employed in the lumber trade. The common tides rise here about 18 feet.

Rivers, Soil, &c.] St. John is the principal river in this province. From its entrance into the Bay of Fundy, to its main source, is computed to be 350 miles. The tide flows 80 or 90 miles up this river. It is navigable for sloops of 50 tons 60 miles, and for boats 200. Its general course from its source is E. S. E. It is the common route to Quebeck. It furnishes the inhabitants with herring, salmon, bass and sturgeon. About one mile above the city of St. John is the only entrance into this river. It is about 80 or 100 yards wide, and about 400 yards in length. This passage is called *the falls* of the river. It being narrow, and a ridge of rocks running across the bottom of the channel, on which are not above 17 feet of water, it is not sufficiently spacious to discharge the fresh waters of the rivers above,

The common tides flowing here about 20 feet, the waters of the river, at *low water*, are about 12 feet higher than the waters of the sea; at high water, the waters of the sea are about five feet higher than the waters of the river; so that in every tide there are two falls, one outwards and one inwards. The only time of passing with safety is at the time when the waters of the river are level with the waters of the sea, which is twice in a tide, and continues not more than *twenty minutes* each time. At other times it is impassable, or extremely dangerous. This passage resembles that at *Hell Gate*, near New-York. The banks of this river, enriched by the annual freshets, are excellent land. About 30 miles from the mouth of this river commences a fine level country of rich intervale and meadow lands, well clothed with timber and wood, such as pine, beech, elm, maple and birch. This river has many tributary streams, which fall into it from each side, among which are the Oromocto river, (by which the Indians have a communication with Passamaquoddy) the Nashwach and Madamkiswick, on which are rich intervales, that produce all kinds of grain, in the highest perfection.

There is good intervale land also on the Kennebeccasis, an eastern branch of the St. John, which empties three miles above the falls. It runs nearly parallel with the Bay of Fundy, and has its source about 50 miles eastward, near the source of the Petitcodiack, and passes through Sussex vale, a well inhabited and remarkably fertile tract of land, on which stands the Academy for the instruction of the Indians, erected under the direction of the "Incorporated Company for the Propagation of the Gospel in New-England, and parts adjacent, in America." This charitable institution was transferred from New-England to this province after the peace of 1783. At this Academy 40 Indian children are fed, clothed and instructed under the direction of a board of commissioners, of which the governour of the province is president.

This noble river, in its numerous and extensive branches, waters and enriches a large tract of excellent country, a great part of which is settled and under improvement. The uplands, in general, are covered with a fine growth of timber, such as pine and spruce, hemlock and hard wood, principally beech, birch, maple, and some ash. The pines on this river are the largest to be met with in British America, and afford a considerable supply of masts (some from 20 to 30 inches diameter) for the British navy.

There are three rivers which fall into the Bay of Passamaquoddy; the largest is called by the modern Indians the Scoodick; but by De Mons and Champlaine, Etchemins. Its main source is near Penobscot river, with which the Indians have a communication; the carrying place between the two rivers is but three miles. The rivers which fall into Passamaquoddy Bay have intervales and meadows on their banks, and were formerly covered with a large growth of timber, as appears from the remaining large trunks of trees which are still visible. The Indians say, that about 50 years ago, in a very dry season, a great fire destroyed most of the timber on the east side of Passamaquoddy Bay, and particularly on the Magaguadavick or Eastern River, which falls into the bay, where it raged with great vi-

fluence, and spread as far eastward as the river which falls into the St. John, and extended northerly and westerly beyond the Dickwasset or Digdequash river, which falls into the same side of the bay.

Merramichi river, on the north-east coast of New-Brunswick, falls into the head of a bay of the same name. A little above its confluence with the bay, it forms into two branches, and runs through a fertile tract of intervale; and the land in general in this quarter is well clothed with timber of various kinds. From this river there is a communication with the St. John, partly by land, but principally by water carriage, in canoes. The salmon fishery is carried on to good advantage, and the cod fishery is improving near the entrance of the bay.

Petitcodiack river falls into an arm of the Bay of Fundy, called Chignecto channel. From its confluence, after a course of some miles northerly, it takes a western direction; and the Indians have a communication from the head of it with St. John's river, by a portage across to the head of Kennebeccasis. Meramcook river is eastward of Petitcodiack, and takes a north-easterly direction.

The rivers Ristigouche and Nipisiguit, run from west to east into Chaleurs and Nipisiguit Bays, which communicate with the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The river St. Croix empties into Passamaquoddy Bay, and forms a part of the boundary between New-Brunswick and Maine.

Bays and Lakes.] The coast of this province is indented with numerous bays and commodious harbours. The principal are Chaleur, Merramichi, Vert, which is separated from the Bay of Fundy by a narrow isthmus of about 18 miles wide; Bay of Fundy which extends 50 leagues into the country; Chenigto or Chignecto Bay at the head of Fundy Bay; Passamaquoddy Bay bordering on the District of Maine. At the entrance of this bay is an island, granted to several gentlemen in Liverpool in Lancashire, who named it Campobello. At a very considerable expense, they attempted to form a settlement here, but failed. On several other islands in this bay there are settlements made by people from Massachusetts. Among the lakes in this province, which are very numerous, and as yet without names, is Grand Lake, near St. John's river, about 30 miles long, and 8 or 10 broad, and in some places 40 fathoms deep.

Trade, Forts, Animals, Indians, History, &c.] See Nova-Scotia.

PROVINCE OF NOVA-SCOTIA.

Boundaries and Extent.] NOVA-SCOTIA is separated on the north-east from Cape Breton, by the Gut of Canso. On the north it has a part of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the straits of Northumberland, which separate it from the

Island St. John's. On the west it has New-Brunswick and the Bay of Fundy. On the south and south-east the Atlantick Ocean. Its greatest length is from Cape Sable on the S. W. to Cape Canso on the N. E. This province contains 8,789,000 acres; of which three millions have been granted, and two millions settled and under improvement. According to Pinkerton, its length is 300 miles, its breadth 80.

Bays, Lakes, Capes, &c.] This province is accommodated with many spacious harbours, bays and coves of shelter, equal to any in the world. The Cape and harbour of Canso are 40 leagues eastward of Halifax. Chedabucto Bay is about 10 leagues N. W. of Canso. Chebucto Bay, on which is situated the town of Halifax. The other principal bays are Frederick, George, Torbay, Charlotte, King's, Barrington, Townsend, St. Mary's, Annapolis Royal, the Basin of Minas, and the Bay of Fundy, already mentioned, which washes the southern shores of New-Brunswick, and the north-western shores of Nova-Scotia. This bay is 12 leagues across from the Gut of Annapolis to St. John, the capital of New-Brunswick. The tides are rapid in this bay, and rise at Annapolis Basin about 30 feet. At the head of Chignecto channel, an arm of this bay, the spring tides rise 60 feet. At the Basin of Minas, which may be termed the north-east arm or branch of this bay, the tides rise 40 feet.

Besides Cape Sable and Cape Canso, at the two extremities of this province already mentioned, there is Cape Blowmedown, at the southern side of the entrance from the Bay of Fundy into the Basin of Minas. This cape is the eastern termination of a range of mountains, extending about 80 or 90 miles to the Gut of Annapolis; bounded on the north, by the shores of the Bay of Fundy; on the south, by Annapolis River. This tract of land is reckoned equal in richness and fertility to any in America, producing wheat, rye, barley, oats, and other vegetables in perfection and abundance.

The principal lakes are Lake Porter, which empties itself into the ocean about five leagues to the eastward of Halifax. This lake is 15 miles in length and half a mile in breadth, with islands in it. Potawock Lake, so called by the Indians, lies at the head of St. Margaret's Bay, and the main road from Halifax to Windsor. The great Lake of Shubenaccadie lies on the east side of the road just mentioned, and about 7 miles from it, and 21 miles from Halifax. There is another lake of considerable magnitude, called by the French inhabitants, Rossignol, lying between Liverpool and Annapolis; the Indians say this lake is the main source of Liverpool and Petit rivers. It has been a place of resort for the Indians, on account of the convenient hunting grounds around it. There are many other lakes and ponds which diversify this province.

Rivers.] The principal rivers in this province are Annapolis and Shubenaccadie. The former is navigable 15 miles for vessels of 100 tons. The latter rises within a mile of the town of Dartmouth, on the east side of Halifax harbour, and empties into Cobequid Bay, taking in its course the Slewiack and Gay's rivers. St. Mary's, Antigonish, Liverpool, Turket, Musquidoboit and Sissibon rivers, are of less note, all emptying into Pictou harbour, in the straits of Northumberland.

Face of the Country, Mountains, Soil and Productions. The southern shores of Nova-Scotia, to the eye of a stranger, exhibit an unfavourable appearance, being in general broken and stony; but the innumerable islands along its coasts, coves and harbours, though generally composed of rocky substances, appear by nature designed for the drying of fish, being covered with materials for fish flakes and stages; and there is land sufficient for pastures and gardens to serve the purposes of fishermen. As you advance into the back country, it wears a more pleasing appearance; and at Cornwallis, Windsor, Horton, Annapolis, Cumberland, Cobequid, Pictou, and along the northern shores of the province, there are extensive, well improved farms. The gradual improvements in husbandry, which have been encouraged by the laudable efforts, and successful experiments of the Agricultural Society lately established here, afford reasonable expectation, that Nova-Scotia will become a flourishing colony.

The lands in general on the sea coast of this province, the county of Lunenburg excepted, and a few hills of good land, are rocky and interspersed with swamps and barrens. The growth in general is a mixture of spruce, hemlock, pine, fir, beech, and some rock maple, which furnish an inexhaustible supply of materials for building ships, and other purposes.

The most remarkable land on the south shore of Nova-Scotia is the high land of Aspotageon, which lies on the promontory which separates Mahone from Margaret's Bay. This land may be seen at a great distance from the offing, and is the land generally made by ships bound from Europe and the West-Indies to Halifax. The summit of this land is about 500 feet perpendicular from the level of the sea.

The Ardois mountain lies between Windsor and Halifax, about 30 miles N. E. from the latter. It is supposed to be the highest land in the province, and affords an extensive prospect of all the high and low lands about Windsor, Falmouth, and the distant country bordering on the Basin of Minas.

On the St John's, is a tract of fine land, enriched by being annually overflowed by the rivers. Thirty miles from the mouth begins a level country, covered with excellent timber; masts are cut here, 28 inches diameter. The tide ascends this river, 80 or 90 miles; it is navigable for vessels 60 miles, for boats 200, and is a common route to Quebeck.

Fisheries. The coast of this province abounds with fish of various kinds, as cod, salmon, mackerel, herring, alewives, trout, &c. and being near to the banks of Newfoundland, Quero and Sable banks, fisheries, under proper management and regulations, might be carried on with certainty of success.

Inhabitants. The province is inhabited by the French, who were formerly the holders of the country, by Englishmen, and New-Englanders, and by people from several other countries.

Sunbury county, on the N. of the Bay of Fundy, was settled principally from Connecticut and Massachusetts. In several places in Lunenburg county, are settlements of Germans. Londonderry and

Truro are settled by people from the north of Ireland, from Scotland, and Londonderry in New-Hampshire. Quakers from Nantucket are settled near Cape Sables.

Mines and Minerals.] There are mines of coal at Cumberland and on the east river which fall into Pictou harbour. There are also limestone and plaster of Paris at Windsor, and in the Gut of Canso. There is plenty of log and mountain ore in Annapolis township, on the borders of the Nictau river, and a bloomery erected there; and from some late successful experiments, there is a good prospect of its becoming a publick benefit. Some small pieces of copper have been found at Cape D'Or, on the north side of the Basin of Minas, but not sufficient to establish a well grounded expectation of any mine rich enough to pay for the working of it.

Cascades.] There is a stream that falls into the head of Milford haven, over a fall about 40 feet high; and another into the harbour of St. John on the north-east shore of the province, over a fall about the same height.

Animals.] In the provinces of Nova-Scotia and New-Brunswick, the animals are of the same kind as in the northern parts of the United States, but not so numerous.

Forts.] These are Fort Edward at Windsor, capable of containing 200 men; Annapolis, 100; Cumberland, 300; Fort Howe, on St. John's river, in New-Brunswick, 100; besides which are barracks, inclosed in a stockade at Cornwallis, for about 50 men. This was the state of these forts in 1783.

Indians.] These are the Micmacks, and the tribe called the Marechites. The former inhabit the eastern shore, between Halifax and Cape Breton; between Cumberland county and the north-east coast of the province, towards Chaleur Bay; about the heads of the rivers which run through the counties of Hants and King's County; and between Cape Sable and Annapolis Royal. This tribe is supposed to have about 300 fighting men. The Marechites inhabit the river St. John's and around Passamaquoddy Bay; and are estimated at 140 fighting men: They are much superior, in all respects, to the Micmacks.

Chief Towns.] Halifax, the capital of the province of Nova-Scotia, was settled by a number of British subjects in 1749. It is situated in latitude 44° 40′, on a spacious and commodious bay or harbour, of a bold and easy entrance, where a thousand of the largest ships might ride with great convenience and safety. The town is built on the west side of the harbour, on the declivity of a commanding hill, whose summit is 236 feet perpendicular from the level of the sea. The town is laid out into oblong squares; the streets parallel and at right angles. The town and suburbs are about two miles in length; and the general width a quarter of a mile. It contained in 1793 about 4000 inhabitants and 700 houses. At the northern extremity of the town, is the king's naval yard, completely built and supplied with stores of every kind for the royal navy. The harbour of Halifax is reckoned inferior to no place in British America for the seat of government, being open and accessible at all seasons of the year, when almost all other harbours in these provinces are locked up with ice;

also from its entrance, situation, and its proximity to the Bay of Fundy, and principal interior settlements of the province. The other principal towns are Shelburne on Port Roseway, near Cape Sables, containing, in 1783, 600 families, which have since diminished; Digby, settled in 1783; Lunenburg; Annapolis, on the east side of the Bay of Fundy, with a fine harbour, otherwise a place of no importance; Guysborough or Manchester, 10 leagues N. W. of Cape Canso, 250 families in 1783; Rawdon, 40 miles from Halifax, 60 houses; New-Dublin, Liverpool, Windsor, Cornwallis, Horton, Yarmouth, Barrington and Argyle.

Trade and Population.] The exports from Great-Britain to this country consist chiefly of linen and woollen cloths, and other necessaries for wear, of fishing tackle, and rigging for ships. The amount of exports, at an average of three years, before the new settlements, was about 26,500l. The only articles obtained in exchange are timber and the produce of the fishery, which, at a large average, amounted to 38,000l. But from the late increase of inhabitants, it is supposed that they will now erect saw mills, and endeavour to supply the West-India islands with lumber of every kind, as well as the produce of the fishery, which will be a profitable article to both countries. The whole population of Nova-Scotia, New-Brunswick and the islands adjoining, is estimated at 50,000. This estimate it is supposed is considerably two large. Recent accounts of these settlements represent them as in a declining state, having great numbers of the houses built in the new towns uninhabited, and considerably reduced in value.

Road.] In 1792, 40 miles of a good cart road was cut, cleared and bridged, from the populous and flourishing settlements at Pictou on the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to Halifax, a distance of 68 miles. Eight miles of this distance had before been cut. The advantages to the district above mentioned from this road in point of commerce with the capital, and the enjoyment of the benefits of government, will be great. The expense of it was defrayed by a revenue, which has always been disposed of by the former governours, but not before applied to such beneficial purposes.

History.] Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The first grant of lands in it was given by Charles II. in 1663, to Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova-Scotia or New-Scotland. Since then it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation, backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English till the peace of Utrecht; and their design in acquiring it does not seem to have arisen so much from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy the other British settlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were transported in 1749, at the charge of the government into this country, who built and settled the town of Halifax.

List of Governours of Nova-Scotia since 1720.

"In the year 1720, Colonel Phillips was appointed Governour of Nova-Scotia; and in the year 1749, General Cornwallis was appointed in his place, and was founder of the present settlement of this colony.

In 1752, Colonel Hopson succeeded; in 1753, he had leave to return to England, and his successor in the administration was Lieutenant-Colonel, then Lieutenant-Governour, Lawrence, who in 1756 was appointed Governour in the room of Colonel Hopson.

Governour Lawrence died in 1760, and Governour Ellis, who had been Governour of Georgia, was appointed Governour, and was on the point of leaving England; but Mr. Belcher, senior counsellor, was appointed Lieutenant-Governour, and was succeeded by Colonel Wilmot in 1763, who was appointed Lieutenant-Governor, and was afterwards, in 1764, appointed Governour in the place of Mr. Ellis.

In 1766 Governour Wilmot died, and the administration was successively managed by Mr. Green, the senior Counsellor, and Lieutenant-Governour Franklin, until the end of the year, when Lord William Campbell, who had been appointed Governour, arrived. He continued in the government till 1773, when he was succeeded by Colonel Legge, who was called home in 1776. The administration of the government devolved successively on Lieuteuant-Governour Arbuthnot; in 1778 on Sir Richard Hughes, and in 1781 on Sir Andrew Hammond.

In 1782, Colonel John Parr was appointed Governour instead of Governour Legge. He died Nov. 1790, aged 66. On his decease, the administration of the government devolved on Richard Bulkley, President of the Council. John Wentworth, Surveyor-General of the Woods, was then in England, and as soon as Governour Parr's death was known there, he applied for the commission and obtained it. He arrived in the spring of 1792 at Halifax, and now (1805) continues in office.

Since the British Provinces in North-America have been put under a general Governour, the Governour of each province is styled Lieutenant-Governour. The general government comprehends Nova-Scotia, New-Brunswick, St. John, Sydney, Lower Canada and Upper Canada. The residence of the general Governour is at Quebeck."

ISLAND OF ST. JOHN.

THIS island lies in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, near the northern coast of the province of Nova-Scotia, and is 103 miles long, and from 10 to 35 broad, or 60 long and 35 broad, according to Pinkerton. It has several fine rivers, a rich soil, and is pleasantly situated. Charlottetown is its principal town, and is the residence of the lieutenant-governour, who is the chief officer on the island. The number of inhabitants is estimated at about 5000. Upon the reduc-

tion of Cape Breton, in 1745, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to about 4000, submitted quietly to the British arms. While the French possessed this island, they improved it to so much advantage as that it was called the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It is attached to the province of Nova-Scotia.

The other islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence worthy of notice, are, *Anticosti*, near the mouth of St. Lawrence river, about 120 miles long and 30 broad. It has no convenient harbour, and is uninhabited.

The *Magdalen Isles*, lying in 61° 40′ W. lon. and between 47° 13′ to 47° 42′ N. lat. and inhabited by a few fishermen. These islands were formerly frequented by sea-cows, but they are now become scarce.

Isle Percée, about 15 miles south of Cape Gaspee, is a small but remarkable island, being "a perpendicular rock, *pierced* with two natural arches, through which the sea flows. One of these arches is sufficiently high to admit a large boat to pass freely through it."

[*Freeman.*]

THE UNITED STATES.*

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	1250	between	31° and 46° North Latitude.
Breadth	1040		8° E. and 24° W. lon. from Philadel.
			64° and 96° W. lon. from London.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north and east by British America, or the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, and New-Brunswick; south-east by the Atlantick Ocean; south by East and West-Florida; west by the River Missisippi.

In the treaty of peace, concluded in 1783, the limits of the American United States are more particularly defined in the words following: "And that all disputes which might arise in future on the subject of the boundaries of the said United States may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and shall be their boundaries, viz. From the north-west angle of Nova-Scotia, viz. that angle which is formed by a line drawn due north from the source of St. Croix River to the Highlands, along the said Highlands, which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantick Ocean, to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut river; thence down along the middle of that river to the 45th degree of north latitude; from thence by a line due west on said latitude, until it strikes the river Iroquois or Cataraquie; thence along the middle of the said river into Lake Ontario; through the middle of said lake, until it strikes the communication by water between that lake and Lake Erie; thence along the middle of said communication into Lake Erie, through the middle of said lake, until it arrives at the water communication between that lake and Lake Huron; thence through the middle of said lake to the water communication between that lake and Lake Superior; thence through Lake Superior, northward of the Isles Royal and Philipeaux, to the Long Lake; thence through the middle of said Long Lake, and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods, to the said Lake of the Woods; thence through the said lake to the most north-western point thereof, and from thence, on a due west course, to the River Missisippi; thence by a line to be drawn along the middle of said River Missisippi, until it shall intersect the northernmost part of the 31st degree of north latitude.

"South, by a line to be drawn due east from the determination of the line last mentioned, in the latitude of thirty-one degrees north of the equator, to the middle of the River Apalachicola, or Catahou-

* Louisiana may now be considered as part of the United States; but for obvious reasons is not included within the following limits, but considered under a separate head, as an annexed territory.

che; thence along the middle thereof to its junction with the Flint River; thence straight to the head of St. Mary's River; and thence down along the middle of St. Mary's River to the Atlantick Ocean.

"East, by a line to be drawn along the middle of the River St. Croix, from its mouth, in the Bay of Fundy, to its source, and from its source directly north, to the aforesaid Highlands, which divide the rivers which fall into the Atlantick Ocean from those which fall into the River St. Lawrence; comprehending all islands within twenty leagues of any part of the shores of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due east from the points where the aforesaid boundaries between Nova-Scotia on the one part, and East-Florida on the other, shall respectively touch the Bay of Fundy and the Atlantick Ocean, excepting such islands as now are, or heretofore have been, within the limits of the said province of Nova-Scotia."

The territory of the United States, according to Mr. Hutchins, contains, by computation, a million of square miles, in which are

	640,000,000 acres
Deduct for water	51,000,000
Acres of land in the United States	589,000,000

That part of the United States, comprehended between the west boundary line of Pennsylvania, on the east; the boundary line between Great-Britain and the United States, extending from the north-west corner of Pennsylvania, to the north-west extremity of the Lake of the Woods, on the north; the river Missisippi, to the mouth of the Ohio, on the west; and the river Ohio on the south, to the aforementioned bounds of Pennsylvania, contains, by computation, about 411,000 square miles, in which are 263,040,000 acres

Deduct for water	43,040,000
To be disposed of by order of Congress, when purchased of the Indians	220,000,000

The whole of this immense extent of unappropriated western territory, containing, as above stated, 220,000,000 of acres, and several large tracts south of the Ohio,* have been, by the cession of some of the original thirteen States, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the federal government, and are pledged as a fund for sinking the debt of the United States. Of this territory the Indians now possess a very large proportion. Mr. Jefferson, in his report to Congress, Nov. 8, 1791, describes the boundary line between us and the Indians, as follows: "Beginning at the mouth of the Cayahoga, (which falls into the southernmost part of the Lake Erie) and running up the river to the portage, between that and the Tuscarora (or N. E.) branch of the Muskingum; then down the said branch to the forks, at the crossing place above Fort Lawrence; then westwardly, towards the portage of the Great Miami, to the main branch of that river; then down the Miami, to the fork of that river, next below the old fort which was taken by the French, in 1752; thence due west to the river

* Ceded by North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia, with certain reservations for the Indians and other purposes, as will be mentioned hereafter.

De la Panse (a branch of the Wabash) and down that river to the Wabash. So far the line is precisely determined, and cleared of the claims of the Indians. The tract comprehending the whole country within the above described line, the Wabash, the Ohio, and the western limits of Pennsylvania, contains about 55,000 square miles. How far, on the western side of the Wabash, the southern boundary of the Indians has been defined, we know not. It is only understood in general, that their title to the lower country, between that river and the Illinois, was formerly extinguished by the French, while in their possession."

Estimate of the number of acres of water, north and westward of the river Ohio, within the territory of the United States.

	Acres.
In Lake Superior,	21,952,780
Lake of the Woods,	1,133,800
Lake Rain, &c.	165,200
Red Lake,	551,000
Lake Michigan,	10,368,000
Bay Puan,	1,216,000
Lake Huron,	5,009,920
Lake St. Clair	89,500
Lake Erie, western part,	2,252,800
Sundry small lakes and rivers,	301,000
	43,040,000

Estimate of the number of acres of water within the thirteen United States.

In the lakes, &c. as abovementioned—		43,040,000
In Lake Erie, westward of the line extended from the north-west corner of Pennsylvania, due north to the boundary between the British territory and the United States,	410,000	
In Lake Ontario,	2,390,000	
Lake Champlaine,	500,000	
Chesapeak Bay,	1,700,000	
Albemarle Bay,	330,000	
Delaware Bay,	630,000	
All the rivers within the thirteen States, including the Ohio,	2,000,000	
		7,960,000
	Total,	51,000,000

Canals and Lakes.] It may in truth be said, that no part of the world is so well watered with springs, rivulets, rivers and lakes, as the territory of the United States. By means of these various streams and collections of water, the whole country is checkered into islands and peninsulas. The United States, and indeed all parts of North-America, seem to have been formed by nature for the most intimate

union. The facilities of navigation render the communication between the ports of Georgia and New-Hampshire far more expeditious and practicable, than between those of Provence and Picardy in France; Cornwall and Caithness in Great-Britain; or Gallicia and Catalonia in Spain. The canals opening between Susquehannah and Delaware, between Pasquetank and Elizabeth Rivers, in Virginia, and between the Schuylkill and Susquehannah, will open a communication from the Carolinas to the western counties of Pennsylvania and New-York. The improvement of the Patowmak, will give a passage from the southern states to the western parts of Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and even to the lakes. From Detroit, to Alexandria, on the Patowmak, six hundred and seven miles, are but two carrying places, which together do not exceed the distance of forty miles. The canals of Delaware and Chesapeak will open the communication from South-Carolina to New-Jersey, Delaware, the most populous parts of Pennsylvania, and the midland counties of New-York. Were these, and the canal between Ashley and Cooper Rivers, in South-Carolina—the canals in the northern parts of the state of New-York, and those of Massachusetts and New-Hampshire, all opened, and many of them are in great forwardness, North-America would thereby be converted into a cluster of large and fertile islands, communicating with each other with ease and little expense, and in many instances, without the uncertainty or danger of the seas.

There is nothing in other parts of the globe which resembles the prodigious chain of lakes in this part of the world. They may properly be termed inland seas of fresh water; and even those of the second or third class in magnitude, are of larger circuit than the greatest lake in the eastern continent, the Caspian Sea excepted. Some of the most northern lakes belonging to the United States have never been surveyed, or even visited till lately, by white people; of course we have no description of them which can be relied on as accurate. Others have been partially surveyed, and their relative situation determined. The best account of them which we have been able to procure is as follows:

The Lake of the Woods, the most northern in the United States, is so called from the large quantities of wood growing on its banks; such as oaks, pines, firs, spruce, &c. This lake lies nearly east of the south end of Lake Winnepeek, and is supposed to be the source or conductor of one branch of the river Bourbon, if there be such a river. Its length from east to west is said to be about seventy miles, and in some places it is forty miles wide. The Killistinoe Indians encamp on its borders to fish and hunt. This lake is the communication between the Lakes Winnepeek and Bourbon and Lake Superior.

Rainy, or Long Lake, lies east of the Lake of the Woods, and is said to be nearly a hundred miles long, and in no part more than twenty miles wide.

Eastward of this lake, lie several small ones, which extend in a string to the great carrying place, and thence into Lake Superior. Between these little lakes are several carrying places, which render the trade to the north-west difficult, and exceedingly tedious, as it takes two years to make one voyage from Michilimakinack to these parts.

Lake Superior, formerly termed the Upper Lake, from its northern situation, is so called from its magnitude, it being the largest on the continent. It may justly be termed the Caspian of America, and is supposed to be the largest body of fresh water on the globe. According to the French charts, it is 1500 miles in circumference.* A great part of the coast is bounded by rocks and uneven ground. The water is pure and transparent, and appears generally, throughout the lake, to lie upon a bed of huge rocks. It has been remarked in regard to the waters of this lake, (with how much truth I pretend not to say) that although their surface, during the heat of summer, is impregnated with no small degree of warmth, yet, on letting down a cup to the depth of about a fathom, the water drawn up from thence is cool and refreshing.

The situation of this lake, from the most accurate observations which have come to our knowledge, lies between lat. 46° and 48° 30′ N. and lon. 84° and 91° 30′ W. from London.

There are many islands in this lake, two of them have each land enough, if proper for cultivation, to form a considerable province; especially Isle Royal, near the N. W. coast of the lake, which is not less than a hundred miles long, and in many places forty broad. The natives suppose these islands are the residence of the Great Spirit.

Two large rivers empty themselves into this lake, on the north and north-east side; one is called the Nipegon, which leads to a tribe of the Chippeways, who inhabit a lake of the same name, and the other is the Michipicooton river, the source of which is towards James's Bay from whence there is said to be but a short portage to another river which empties itself into that bay.

Not far from the Nipegon is a small river, that just before it enters the lake, has a perpendicular fall from the top of a mountain of six hundred feet. [*Carver.*] It is very narrow, and appears at a distance like a white garter suspended in the air. There are upwards of thirty other rivers, which empty into this lake, some of which are of a considerable size. On the south side of it is a remarkable point or cape, of about sixty miles in length, called point Chegomegan. About a hundred miles west of this cape, a considerable river falls into the lake, the head of which is composed of a great assemblage of small streams. This river is remarkable for the abundance of virgin copper that is found on and near its banks. Many small islands, particularly on the eastern shores, abound with copper ore lying in beds, with the appearance of copperas. This metal might be easily made a very advantageous article of commerce. This lake abounds with fish, particularly trout and sturgeon; the former weigh from twelve to fifty pounds, and are caught almost any season of the year in great plenty. Storms affect this lake as much as they do the Atlantick Ocean; the waves run as high, and the navigation is equally dangerous. It discharges its waters from the south-east corner, through the Straits of St. Marie, which are about forty miles long. Near the upper end of these straits is a rapid, which, though it is im-

* Carver supposes it exceeds 1600 miles.

possible for canoes to ascend, yet, when conducted by careful pilots, may be descended without danger.

Though Lake Superior is supplied by near forty rivers, many of which are large, yet it does not appear that one tenth part of the waters which are conveyed into it by these rivers is discharged by the above mentioned straits. Such a superabundance of water can be disposed of only by evaporation.* The entrance into this lake from the straits of St. Marie, affords one of the most pleasing prospects in the world. On the left may be seen many beautiful little islands that extend a considerable way before you; and on the right, an agreeable succession of small points of land, that project a little way into the water, and contribute, with the islands, to render this delightful bason calm, and secure from those tempestuous winds, by which the adjoining lake is frequently troubled.

Lake Huron, into which you enter through the straits of St. Marie, is next in magnitude to Lake Superior. It lies between lat. 43° 30′ and 46° 30′ north, and between lon. 80° and 84° 30′ W. from London. Its circumference is about one thousand miles. On the north side of this lake is an island called Manatou, signifying a place of spirits, and is considered as sacred by the Indians. On the south-west part of this lake is Saganaum Bay, about eighty miles in length, and about eighteen or twenty miles broad. On its banks are great quantities of sand cherries. Thunder Bay, so called from the thunder that is frequently heard here, lies about half way between Saganaum Bay and the north-west corner of the lake. It is about nine miles across either way. The fish are the same as in Lake Superior. At the north-west corner this lake communicates with lake Michigan, by the Straits of Michilimakinack.

The Chippeway Indians live scattered around this lake; particularly near Saganaum Bay. Their country, however, is to the eastward of this lake.

* That such a superabundance of water should be disposed of by evaporation is no singular circumstance. "There are some seas" says an ingenious correspondent, who has not obliged me with his name, "in which there is a pretty just balance between the waters received from rivers, brooks, &c. and the waste by evaporation. Of this the Caspian Sea in Asia affords an instance; which though it receives several large rivers, has no outlet. There are others, (to speak in borrowed language) whose expense exceeds their income; and these would soon become bankrupt, were it not for the supplies which they constantly receive from larger collections of water, with which they are connected; such are the Black and Mediterranean seas; into the former of which there is a constant current from the Mediterranean through the Bosphorus of Thrace; and into the latter, from the Atlantick, through the Straits of Gibraltar. Others again derive more from their tributary streams than they lose by evaporation. These give rise to large rivers. Of this kind are the Dambea, in Africa, the Winnipiseogee, in New-Hampshire, Lake Superior and other waters in North-America; and the quantity they discharge is only the difference between the influx and the evaporation. It is observable, that on the shores the evaporation is much greater than at a distance from them on the ocean. The remarkable cluster of lakes in the middle of North-America, of which Lake Superior is one, was doubtless designed by a wise Providence, to furnish the interior parts of the country with that supply of vapours, without which, like the interior parts of Africa, they must have been a mere desert. It may be thought equally surprising that there should be any water at all discharged from them, as that the quantity should bear so small a proportion to what they receive." [*Anonymous* MS.]

Michigan Lake lies between latitude 42° 10′ and 46° 30′ north; and between 11° and 13° west lon. from Philadelphia. Its computed length is 280 miles, from north to south; its breadth from 60 to 70 miles. It is navigable for shipping of any burthen; and at the north-eastern part communicates with Lake Huron, by a strait six miles broad, on the south side of which stands fort Michilimakinack, which is the name of the strait. In this lake are several kinds of fish, particularly trout of an excellent quality, weighing from 20 to 60 pounds, and some have been taken in the straits of Michilimakinack of 90 pounds. Westward of this lake are large meadows, said to extend to the Mississippi. It receives a number of rivers from the west and east, among which is the river St. Joseph, very rapid and full of islands. It springs from a number of small lakes, a little to the north-west of the Miami village, and runs north-west into the south-east part of the lake. On the north side of this river is fort St. Joseph, from which there is a road, bearing north of east, to Detroit. The Powtewatamie Indians, who have about two hundred fighting men, inhabit this river opposite Fort St. Joseph.

Between Lake Michigan on the west, and Lakes Huron, St. Clair, and the west end of Erie on the east, is a fine tract of country, peninsulated, more than 250 miles in length, and from 150 to 200 in breadth. The banks of the lakes, for a few miles inland, are sandy and barren, producing a few pines, shrub oaks and cedars. Back of this from either lake, the timber is heavy and good, and the soil luxuriant.

Lake St. Clair lies about half way between Lake Huron and Lake Erie, and is about ninety miles in circumference. It receives the waters of the three great Lakes, Superior, Michigan and Huron, and discharges them through the river or strait called Detroit, (or the Strait) into Lake Erie. This lake is of an oval form, and navigable for large vessels. The fort of Detroit is situated on the western bank of the river of the same name, about nine miles below Lake St. Clair. The settlements are extended on both sides of the strait or river for many miles towards Lake Erie, and some few above the fort.

Lake Erie* is situated between 41 and 43° of north latitude, and between 3° 40′ and 8° west longitude. It is nearly three hundred miles long, from east to west, and about forty in its broadest part. A point of land projects from the north side into this lake, several miles, towards the south-east, called Long Point. The islands and banks towards the west end of the lake are so infested with rattle-snakes, as to render it dangerous to land on them. The lake is covered near the banks of the islands with large pond lily, the leaves of which lie on the surface of the water so thick, as to cover it entirely for many acres together; on these in the summer season lie myriads of water-snakes basking in the sun. Of the venomous serpents which infest this lake, the hissing snake is the most remarkable. It is about eighteen inches long, small and speckled. When you approach it, it flattens itself in a moment, and its spots which are of various colours, become visibly brighter through rage; at the same time it blows from

* Erie, Erige or Erike, or the Lake of the Cat. [*Hennepin.*]

its mouth, with great force, a subtile wind, said to be of a nauseous smell; and if drawn in with the breath of the unwary traveller, will infallibly bring on a decline, that in a few months must prove mortal. No remedy has yet been found to counteract its baneful influence. This lake is of a more dangerous navigation than any of the others, on account of the craggy rocks which project into the water, in a perpendicular direction, many miles together from the northern shore, affording no shelter from storms.

Presque Isle is on the south-east shore of this lake, about lat. 42° 10′. From this to Fort Le Beuf, on French Creek, is a portage of 15½ miles. About 20 miles north-east of this is another portage of 9¼ miles, between Chataughque Creek, emptying into Lake Erie, and Chataughque Lake, a water of Allegany river.

Fort Erie stands on the northern shore of Lake Erie, and the west bank of Niagara river, in Upper Canada. This lake, at its north-east end, communicates with Lake Ontario, by the river Niagara, which runs from south to north, about 30 miles, including its windings, embracing in its course, Grand Island, and receiving Tonewanto Creek, from the east. About the middle of this river, are the celebrated Falls of Niagara, which are reckoned one of the greatest natural curiosities in the world. The waters which supply the river Niagara rise near two thousand miles to the north-west, and passing through the lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron and Erie, receiving in their course constant accumulations, at length, with astonishing grandeur, rush down a stupendous precipice of 137 feet perpendicular; and in a strong rapid, that extends to the distance of eight or nine miles below, fall near as much more; the river then loses itself in Lake Ontario. The water falls 57 feet in the distance of one mile, before it falls perpendicularly.* A spectator standing on the bank of the river opposite these falls, would not imagine them to be more than 40 or 50 feet perpendicular height. The noise of these falls, in a clear day and fair wind, may be heard between forty and fifty miles. When the water strikes the bottom, its spray rises to a great height in the air, occasioning a thick cloud of vapours, in which, when the sun shines, may be seen, morning and evening, a beautiful rainbow. Fort Niagara, built by the French about the year 1725, is situated on the east side of Niagara river, at its entrance into Lake Ontario, about 43° 20′ N. lat.

Lake Ontario is situated between forty-three and forty-five degrees N. latitude, and between one and five degrees W. longitude. Its form is nearly oval. Its greatest length is from south-west to north-east, and its circumference about six hundred miles. It abounds with fish of an excellent flavour, among which are the Oswego bass, weighing three or four pounds. Its banks in many places are steep, and the southern shore is covered principally with beech trees, and the lands appear good. It receives the waters of the Chenessee river from

* It is believed by the inhabitants in the neighbourhood of these falls, that formerly they were 6 miles lower down than they now are, and that the change has been produced by the constant operation of the water. But on a careful examination of the banks of the river, there appears to be no good foundation for this opinion. [*Gen. Lincoln.*]

the south, and of Onondago, at Fort Oswego, from the south-east, by which it communicates, through Lake Oneida and Wood Creek, with Mohawk river. On the north-east, this lake discharges itself through the river Cataraqui, (which at Montreal, takes the name of St. Lawrence) into the Atlantick ocean. "It is asserted that these lakes fill once in seven years, and that 1794 was the year when they would be full; but as we are unacquainted with any laws of nature, by which this periodical effect should be produced, we may with propriety doubt the fact." [*Gen. Lincoln.*]

About 8 miles from the west end of Lake Ontario, is a curious cavern, which the Messisaugas Indians call *Manito' ah wigwam*, or *house of the Devil.* The mountains which border on the lake, at this place, break off abruptly, and form a precipice of 200 feet perpendicular descent; at the bottom of which the cavern begins. The first opening is large enough for three men conveniently to walk abreast. It continues of this bigness for 70 yards in a horizontal direction. Then it falls almost perpendicularly 50 yards, which may be descended by irregular steps from one to four feet distant from each other. It then continues 40 yards horizontally, at the end of which is another perpendicular descent, down which there are no steps. The cold here is intense. In spring and autumn, there are, once in about a week, explosions from this cavern, which shake the ground for sixteen miles round.

Lake Champlaine is next in size to Lake Ontario, and lies nearly east from it, forming a part of the dividing line between the state of New-York and the state of Vermont. It took its name from a French Governour, whose name was Champlaine, who was drowned in it. It was before called Corlaer's Lake. It is about 100 miles in length from north to south, and in its broadest parts 12 or 14. It is well stored with fish, and the land on its borders and on the banks of its rivers is good. Crown Point and Ticonderoga are situated on the bank of this lake, near the southern part of it.

Lake George lies to the southward of Champlaine, and is a most clear, beautiful collection of water, 36 miles long, and from 1 to 7 miles wide. It embosoms more than 200 islands, some say 365; very few of which, are any thing more than barren rock, covered with heath, and a few cedar, spruce and hemlock trees and shrubs, and abundance of rattle-snakes. On each side it is skirted by prodigious mountains, from which large quantities of red cedar are every year carried to New-York for ship timber. The lake is full of fishes, and some of the best kind; among which are the black or Oswego bass and large speckled trouts. The water of this lake is about 100 feet above the level of Lake Champlaine. The portage between the two lakes is one mile and a half; but with a small expense might be reduced to 60 yards; and with a sufficient number of locks might be made navigable through, for batteaux. This lake, in the French charts, is called Lake St. Sacrament; and it is said that the Roman Catholicks, in former times, were at the pains to procure this water for sacramental uses in all their their churches in Canada; hence probably it derived its name.

Rivers.] The Missisippi, or *Meschasipi*, according to Hennepin, signifying *the great river*, receives the waters of the Ohio and Illinois, and their numerous branches from the east; and of the Missouri and other rivers from the west. These mighty streams united are borne down with increasing majesty through vast forests and meadows, and discharged into the Gulf of Mexico. The great length and uncommon depth of this river, says Mr. Hutchins, and the excessive muddiness and salubrious quality of its waters, after its junction with the Missouri, are very singular.* The direction of the channel is so crooked, that from New-Orleans to the mouth of the Ohio, a distance which does not exceed four hundred and sixty miles in a straight line, is about eight hundred and fifty-six by water. It may be shortened at least two hundred and fifty miles, by cutting across eight or ten necks of land, some of which are not thirty yards wide. Charlevoix relates that in the year 1722, at Point Coupee, or Cut Point, the river made a great turn, and some Canadians, by deepening the channel of a small brook, diverted the waters of the rivers into it. The impetuosity of the stream was so violent, and the soil of so rich and loose a quality, that in a short time the point was entirely cut through, and travellers saved fourteen leagues of their voyage. The old bed has no water in it, the times of the periodical overflowings only excepted. The new channel has been since sounded with a line of thirty fathoms, without finding bottom. Several other points, of great extent, have, in like manner, been since cut off, and the river diverted into new channels.

In the spring floods the Missisippi is very high, and the current so strong that it is with difficulty it can be ascended; but this disadvantage is remedied in some measure by eddies or counter-currents, which are generally found in the bends close to the banks of the river, and assist the ascending boats. The current at this season descends at the rate of about five miles an hour. In autumn, when the waters are low, it does not run faster than two miles, but it is rapid in such parts of the river as have clusters of islands, shoals and sand-banks. The circumference of many of these shoals being several miles, the voyage is longer, and in some parts more dangerous than in the spring. The merchandize necessary for the commerce of the upper settlements on or near the Missisippi, is conveyed in the spring and autumn in batteaux, rowed by eighteen or twenty men, and carrying about forty tons. From New-Orleans to the Illinois, the voyage is commonly performed in eight or ten weeks. A prodigious number of islands, some of which are of great extent, intersperse that mighty river. Its waters, after overflowing its banks below the river Ibberville on the east, and the river Rouge on the west, never return within them again, there being many outlets or streams, by which they are conducted into the Bay of Mexico, more especially on the west side of

* In a half pint tumbler of this water has been found a sediment of one inch of impalpable marle-like substance. It is, notwithstanding, extremely wholesome and well tasted, and very cool in the hottest seasons of the year; the rowers, who are there employed, drink of it when they are in the freest perspiration, and never receive any bad effects from it. The inhabitants of New-Orleans use no other water than that of the river, which, by being kept in jars, becomes perfectly clear.

the Missisippi, dividing the country into numerous islands. These singularities distinguish it from every other known river in the world. Below the Ibberville, the land begins to be very low on both sides of the river, across the country, and gradually declines as it approaches nearer to the sea. The island of New-Orleans and the lands opposite are, to all appearance, of no long date; for in digging ever so little below the surface, you find water and great quantities of trees. The many beaches and breakers, as well as inlets, which have arisen out of the channel since 1650, at the several mouths of the river, are convincing proofs that this peninsula was wholly formed in the same manner. And it is certain that when La Salle sailed down the Missisippi to the sea, the opening of that river was very different from what it is at present.

The nearer you approach to the sea, this truth becomes more striking. The bars that cross most of these small channels, opened by the current, have been multiplied by means of the trees carried down with the streams; one of which stopped by its roots or branches in a shallow part, is sufficient to obstruct the passage of thousands more, and to fix them at the same place. Astonishing collections of trees are daily seen in passing between the Balize and the Missouri. No human force is sufficient to remove them, and the mud carried down by the river serves to bind and cement them together. They are gradually covered, and every inundation not only extends their length and breadth, but adds another layer to their height. In less than ten years time, canes, shrubs and aquatick timber grow on them, and form points and islands, which forcibly shift the bed of the river.

Nothing can be asserted with certainty, respecting the length of this river. Its source is not known, but supposed to be upwards of three thousand miles from the sea as the river runs. We only know, that from St. Anthony's Falls in lat. 45° it glides with a pleasant clear current, and receives many large and very extensive tributary streams, before its junction with the Missouri, without greatly increasing the breadth of the Missisippi, though they do its depth and rapidity. The muddy waters of the Missouri discolour the lower part of the river, till it empties into the bay of Mexico. The Missouri is a longer, broader, and deeper river than the Missisippi, and affords a more extensive navigation; it is in fact the principal river, contributing more to the common stream than does the Missisippi. It has been ascended by French traders about twelve or thirteen hundred miles, and from the depth of water, and breadth of the river at that distance, it appeared to be navigable many miles further.

From the the Missouri river, to nearly opposite the Ohio, the western bank of the Missisippi is (some few places excepted) higher than the eastern. From Mine-au-fer to the Ibberville, the eastern bank is higher than the western, on which there is not a single discernible rising or eminence, the distance of seven hundred and fifty miles. From the Ibberville to the sea, there are no eminences on either side, though the eastern bank appears rather the highest of the two, as far as the English turn. Thence the banks gradually diminish in height to the moutlis of the river, where they are but a few feet higher than the common surface of the water.

The slime which the annual floods of the river Missisippi leaves on the surface of the adjacent shores, may be compared with that of the Nile, which deposites a similar manure, and for many centuries past has insured the fertility of Egypt. When its banks shall have been cultivated, as the excellency of its soil and temperature of the climate deserves, its population will equal that of any other part of the world. The trade, wealth and power of America, may, at some future period, depend, and perhaps centre, upon the Missisippi. This also resembles the Nile in the number of its mouths, all issuing into a sea that may be compared to the Mediterranean, which is bounded on the north and south by the two continents of Europe and Africa, as the Mexican Bay is by North and South-America. The smaller mouths of this river might be easily stopped up, by means of those floating trees with which the river, during the floods, is always covered. The whole force of the channel being united, the only opening then left would probably grow deep, and the bar be removed.

Whoever for a moment will cast his eye over a map of the town of New-Orleans, and the immense country around it, and view its advantageous situation, must be convinced that it, or some place near it, must, in process of time, become one of the greatest marts in the world.

The falls of St. Anthony, in about lat. 45°, received their name from Father Lewis Hennipin, a French missionary, who travelled into these parts about the year 1680, and was the first European ever seen by the natives. The whole river, which is more than 250 yards wide, falls perpendicularly about thirty feet, and forms a most pleasing cataract. The rapids below, in the space of three hundred yards, render the descent considerably greater; so that when viewed at a distance, they appear to be much higher than they really are. In the middle of the falls is a small island, about forty feet broad, and somewhat longer, on which grow a few cragged hemlock and spruce trees; and about half way between this island and the eastern shore is a rock, lying at the very edge of the fall, in an oblique position, five or six feet broad, and thirty or forty long. These falls are peculiarly situated, as they are approachable without the least obstruction from any intervening hill or precipice, which cannot be said of any other considerable falls perhaps in the world. The country around is exceedingly beautiful. It is not an uninterrupted plain, where the eye finds no relief, but composed of many gentle ascents, which, in the spring and summer, are covered with verdure, and interspersed with little groves, that give a pleasing variety to the prospect.

A little distance below the falls, is a small island of about an acre and a half, on which grow a great number of oak trees, almost all the branches of which, able to bear the weight, are, in the proper season of the year loaded with eagles' nests. Their instinctive wisdom has taught them to choose this place, as it is secure, on account of the rapids above, from the attacks of either man or beast.

From the best accounts that can be obtained from the Indians, we learn that four of the largest rivers on the continent of North-America, among which are the St. Lawrence, the Missisippi, and the Oregon, or the river of the West, have their sources in the same neigh-

bourhood. The waters of three of them are said to be within 30 miles of each other. If the above information is correct, it shews that these parts are the highest lands in North-America: And it is an instance not to be paralleled in the other three quarters of the globe, that four rivers of such magnitude should take their rise together, and each, after running separate courses, discharge their waters into different oceans, at the distance of more than two thousand miles from their sources. For in their passage from this spot to the Bay of St. Lawrence, east; to the Bay of Mexico, south; and to the bay at the Straits of Annian, west, where the river Oregon is supposed to empty, each of them traverses upwards of two thousand miles. [See Louisiana, where some further particulars concerning this river will be found.]

The Ohio is a most beautiful river. Its current gentle, waters clear, and bosom smooth and unbroken by rocks and rapids, a single instance only excepted. It is one quarter of a mile wide at Fort Pitt; five hundred yards at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway; 1200 yards at Louisville; and the rapids, half a mile, in some few places below Louisville: but its general breadth does not exceed 600 yards. In some places its width is not 400, and in one place particularly, far below the rapids, it is less than 300. Its breadth in no one place exceeds 1200 yards, and at its junction with the Missisippi, neither river is more than 900 yards wide.

Its length, as measured according to its meanders by Capt. Hutchins, is as follows;

From Port Pitt	Miles.		Miles.
To Log's Town	18½	To Little Miami	126¼
Big Beaver Creek	10¾	Licking Creek	8
Little Beaver Creek	13½	Great Miami	26¾
Yellow Creek	11¾	Big Bones	32½
Two Creeks	21¾	Kentucky	44¼
Long Reach	53¾	Rapids	77¼
End Long Reach	16½	Low Country	155¼
Muskingum	26½	Buffalo River	64½
Little Kanhaway	12¼	Wabash	97¼
Hockhocking	16	Big Cave	42¾
Great Kanhaway	82½	Shawanee River	52½
Guiandot	43¾	Cherokee River	13
Sandy Creek	14½	Massack	11
Scioto	48¼	Missisippi	46
			1188

In common winter and spring floods, it affords 30 or 40 feet water to Louisville, 25 or 30 feet to La Tarte's Rapids, forty miles above the mouth of the Great Kanhaway, and a sufficiency at all times for light batteaux and canoes to Fort Pitt. The Rapids are in latitude 38° 8′. The inundations of this river begin about the last of March, and subside in July, although they frequently happen in other months; so that boats which carry 300 barrels of flour, from the Monongahela, or Yohogany, above Pittsburg, have seldom long to wait for water

only. During these floods a first rate man-of-war may be carried from Louisville to New-Orleans, if the sudden turns of the river and the strength of its current will admit a safe steerage; and it is the opinion of Col. Morgan, who has had all the means of information, that a vessel properly built for the sea, to draw 12 feet water, when loaded, and carrying from 12 to 1600 barrels of flour, may be more easily, cheaply, and safely navigated from Pittsburg to the sea, than those now in use; and that this matter only requires one man of capacity and enterprize to ascertain it. He observes, that a vessel intended to be rigged as a brigantine, snow, or ship, should be double decked, take her masts on deck, and be rowed to the Ibberville, below which are no islands, or to New-Orleans, with 20 men, so as to afford reliefs of 10 and 10 in the night. Such a vessel without the use of oars, he says, would float to New-Orleans, from Pittsburg, in 20 times 24 hours. If this be so, what agreeable prospects are presented to our brethren and fellow-citizens in the western country.

The rapids at Louisville descend about 10 feet in a length of a mile and a half. The bed of the river there is a solid rock, and is divided by an island into two branches, the southern of which is about two hundred yards wide, but impassable in dry seasons. The bed of the northern branch is worn into channels by the constant course of the water and attrition of the pebble-stones carried on with that, so as to be passable for batteaux through the greater part of the year. Yet it is thought that the southern arm may be most easily opened for constant navigation. The rise of the waters in these rapids does not exceed 20 or 25 feet. We have a fort, situated at the head of the falls. The ground on the south side rises very gradually.

At Fort Pitt the river Ohio loses its name, branching into the Monongahela and Allegany.

The Monongahela is four hundred yards wide at its mouth. From thence is twelve or fifteen miles to the mouth of Yohogany, where it is three hundreds yards wide. Thence to Redstone by water is fifty miles; by land thirty. Then to the mouth of Cheat River, by water forty miles; by land twenty-eight; the width continuing at three hundred yards, and the navigation good for boats. Thence the width is about two hundred yards to the western fork, fifty miles higher, and and the navigation is frequently interrupted by rapids; which, however, with a swell of two or three feet, become very passable for boats. It then admits light boats, except in dry seasons, sixty-five miles further, to the head of Tygart's valley, presenting only some small rapids and falls of one or two feet perpendicular, and lessening in its width to twenty yards. The western fork is navigable in the winter ten or fifteen miles towards the north of the Little Kanhaway, and will admit a good waggon road to it. The Yohogany is the principal branch of this river. It passes through the Laurel Mountain, about thirty miles from its mouth; is so far, from three hundred to one hundred and fifty yards wide, and the navigation much obstructed in dry weather by rapids and shoals. In its passage through the mountain it makes very great falls, admitting no navigation for ten miles, to the Turkey Foot. Thence to the Great Crossing, about twenty miles, it is again navigable, except in dry seasons, and at this place is two hun

dred yards wide. The sources of this river are divided from those of the Patowmak by the Allegany mountain. From the falls, where it intersects the Laurel Mountain, to Fort Cumberland, the head of the navigation on the Patowmak, is forty miles of very mountainous road. Will's Creek, at the mouth of which was Fort Cumberland, is thirty or forty yards wide, but affords no navigation as yet. Cheat River, another considerable branch of the Monongahela, is two hundred yards wide at its mouth, and one hundred yards at the Dunkard's settlement, fifty miles higher. It is navigable for boats, except in dry seasons. The boundary between Virginia and Pennsylvania crosses it about three or four miles above its mouth.

The Allegany river affords navigation at all seasons for light batteaux to Venango, at the mouth of French Creek, where it is two hundred yards wide; and it is practised even to Le Bœuf, from whence there is a portage of fifteen miles and a half to Presque Isle on Lake Erie.

The country, watered by the Missisippi and its eastern branches, constitutes five eighths of the United States; two of which five eighths are occupied by the Ohio and its waters; the residuary streams, which run into the Gulf of Mexico, the Atlantick and the St. Lawrence, water the remaining three eighths.

Before we quit the subject of the western waters, we will take a view of their principal connections with the Atlantick. These are four; the Hudson's river, the Patowmak, St. Lawrence and Missisippi. Down the last will pass all the heavy commodities. But the navigation through the Gulf of Mexico is so dangerous, and that up the Missisippi so difficult and tedious, that it is thought probable that European merchandize will not be conveyed through that channel. It is most likely that flour, timber, and other heavy articles will be floated on rafts, which will themselves be an article for sale as well as their loading, the navigators returning by land, as at present. There will therefore be a competition between the Hudson, the Patowmak, and the St. Lawrence rivers, for the residue of the commerce of all the country westward of Lake Erie, on the waters of the lakes of the Ohio, and upper parts of Missisippi. To go to New-York, that part of the trade which comes from the lakes or their waters, must first be brought into Lake Erie. Between Lake Superior and its waters and Huron, are the Rapids of St. Marie, which will permit boats to pass, but not larger vessels. Lakes Huron and Michigan afford communication with Lake Erie by vessels of 8 feet draught. That part of the trade which comes from the waters of the Missisippi, must pass from them through some portage into the waters of the lakes. The portage from the Illinois river into a water of Michigan, is of one mile only. From the Wabash, Miami, Muskingum, or Allegany, are portages into the waters of Lake Erie, of from one to fifteen miles. When the commodities are brought into, and have passed through Lake Erie, there is between that and Ontario an interruption by the Falls of Niagara, where the portage is of eight miles; and between Ontario and the Hudson's river are portages of the falls of Onondago, a little above Oswego, of a quarter of a mile; from Wood Creek to the Mohawks river two miles; at the little falls of the

Mohawks river half a mile; and from Schenectady to Albany sixteen miles. Besides the increase of expense occasioned by frequent change of carriage, there is an increased risk of pillage produced by committing merchandize to a greater number of hands successively. The Patowmak offers itself under the following circumstances: For the trade of the lakes and their waters westward of Lake Erie, when it shall have entered that lake, must coast along its southern shore, on account of the number and excellence of its harbours; the northern, though shortest, having few harbours and these unsafe. Having reached Cayahoga, to proceed on to New-York, it will have eight hundred and twenty-five miles and five portages; whereas it is but four hundred and twenty-five miles to Alexandria, its emporium on the Patowmak, if it turns into the Cayahoga, and passes through that, Big Beaver, Ohio, Yohogany, (or Monongalia and Cheat) and Patowmak, and there are but two portages; the first of which, between Cayahoga and Beaver, may be removed by uniting the sources of these waters, which are lakes in the neighbourhood of each other, and in a champaign country; the other, from the waters of Ohio to Patowmak will be from fifteen to forty miles, according to the trouble which shall be taken to approach the two navigations. For the trade of the Ohio, or that which shall come into it from its own waters or the Missisippi, it is nearer through the Patowmak to Alexandria than to New-York, by five hundred and eighty miles, and it is interrupted by one portage only. There is another circumstance of difference too. The lakes themselves never freeze, but the communications between them freeze, and the Hudson's river is itself shut up by the ice three months in the year; whereas the channel to the Chesapeak leads directly into a warmer climate. The southern parts of it very rarely freeze at all, and whenever the northern do, it is so near the sources of the rivers, that the frequent floods, to which they are there liable, break up the ice immediately, so that vessels may pass through the whole winter, subject only to accidental and short delays. Add to all this, that in case of a war with our neighbours of Canada, or the Indians, the route to New-York becomes a frontier through almost its whole length, and all commerce through it ceases from that moment. But the channel to New-York is already known to practice; whereas, the upper waters of the Ohio and the Patowmak, and the great falls of the latter, are yet to be cleared of their obstructions.

The route by St. Lawrence is well known to be attended with many advantages, and with some disadvantages. But there is a fifth route, which the enlightened and enterprizing Pennsylvanians contemplate, which, if effected, will be the easiest, cheapest and surest passage from the lakes, and Ohio river, by means of the Susquehannah, and a canal from thence to Philadelphia. The latter part of this plan, viz. the canal between Susquehannah and the Schuylkill rivers, is now actually in execution. Should they accomplish their whole scheme and they appear confident of success, Philadelphia, in all probability will become, in some future period, one of the largest cities that has ever yet existed.

Particular descriptions of the other rivers in the United States, are reserved to be given in the geographical accounts of those states, through which they respectively flow. One general observation respecting the rivers will, however, be naturally introduced here; and that is, that the entrance into almost all the rivers, inlets, and bays, from New-Hampshire to Georgia, are from south-east to north-west.

Bays.] The coast of North-America is indented with numerous bays, some of which are equal in size to any in the known world. Beginning at the north-easterly part of the continent, and proceeding south-westerly, you find among the largest of these bays, (for we do not pretend to a complete enumeration of them) first the Bay or Gulf of St. Lawrence, which receives the waters of the river of the same name. Next are Chedabucto and Chebucto Bays, in Nova-Scotia, the latter distinguished for the loss of a French fleet in a former war between France and Great-Britain. The Bay of Fundy, between Nova-Scotia and New-Brunswick, is remarkable for its tides, which rise to the height of fifty or sixty feet, and flow so rapidly as to overtake animals which feed upon the shore. Passamaquoddy, Penobscot, Broad and Casco Bays, lie along the coast of the District of Maine. Massachusetts Bay spreads eastward of Boston, and is comprehended between Cape Ann on the north and Cape Cod on the south. The points of Boston harbour are Nahant and Alderton points. Passing by Narraganset and other bays in the state of Rhode-Island, you enter Long Island Sound, between Montauk Point and the Main. This *Sound*, as it is called, is a kind of inland sea, from three to twenty-five miles broad, and about one hundred and forty miles long, extending the whole length of the island, and dividing it from Connecticut. It communicates with the ocean, at both ends of Long Island, and affords a very safe and convenient inland navigation.

The celebrated strait, called *Hell Gate*, is near the west end of this Sound, about eight miles eastward of New-York city, and is remarkable for its whirlpools, which make a tremendous roaring at certain times of tide. These whirlpools are occasioned by the narrowness and crookedness of the pass, and a bed of rocks which extend quite across it; and not by the meeting of the tides from east to west, as has been conjectured, because they meet at Frog's Point, several miles above. A skilful pilot may, with safety, conduct a ship of any burden through this strait with the tide, or at still water, with a fair wind.*

Delaware Bay is sixty miles long, from the Cape to the entrance of the river Delaware at Bombay Hook, and so wide in some parts, as that a ship in the middle of it cannot be seen from the land. It opens into the Atlantick north-west and south-east, between Cape Henlopen on the right, and Cape May on the left. These Capes are eighteen or twenty miles apart.

The Chesapeak is a very spacious bay, 150 (some say 170) miles in length from north to south, and from 7 to 18 miles broad. It is gen-

* There is a tradition, that Long Island and the adjacent Continent were, in former days, separated only by a small river, and that the aboriginal inhabitants of this place could step from rock to rock, and cross this "arm of the sea," as it may now be called, at *Hell Gate*. [*Dr. Mitchill.*]

erally as much as 9 fathoms deep, and affords many commodious harbours, and a safe and easy navigation. Its entrance, which is 12 miles wide, is nearly E. N. E. and S. S. W. between Cape Charles, lat. 37° 12', and Cape Henry, lat. 37°, in Virginia. It separates the eastern parts of Virginia and Maryland, leaving a small part of the former, and a large portion of the latter of these states on its eastern shore. It receives the waters of the Susquehannah, Potowmack, Rappahannock, York and James Rivers, which are all large and navigable.

Face of the Country.] The tract of country belonging to the United States, is happily variegated with plains and mountains, hills and vallies. Some parts are rocky, particularly New-England, the north parts of New-York and New-Jersey, and a broad space, including the several ridges of the long range of mountains which run south-westward through Pennsylvania, Virginia, North-Carolina, and part of Georgia, dividing the waters which flow into the Atlantick, from those which fall into the Missisippi. In the parts east of the Allegany mountains, in the southern states, the country for several hundred miles in length, and sixty or seventy, and sometimes more, in breadth, is level and entirely free from stone. It has been a question, agitated by the curious, whether the extensive tract of low, flat country, which fronts the several states south of New-York, and extends back to the hills, has remained in its present form and situation ever since the flood; or, whether it has been made by the particles of earth which have been washed down from the adjacent mountains, and by the accumulation of soil from the decay of vegetable substances; or, by earth washed out of the Bay of Mexico by the Gulf Stream, and lodged on the coast; or, by the recess of the ocean, occasioned by a change in some other parts of the earth; or, from other causes unknown to us. Several phenomena deserve consideration in forming an opinion on this question.

1. It is a fact well known to every person of observation who has lived in, or travelled through the southern states, that marine shells and other substances which are peculiar to the sea shore, are almost invariably found by digging eighteen or twenty feet below the surface of the earth. A gentleman of veracity told the author, that in sinking a well many miles from the sea, he found, at the depth of twenty feet, every appearance of a salt marsh, that is, marsh grass, marsh mud, and brackish water. In all this flat country, until you come to the hilly land, wherever you dig a well, you find the water, at a certain depth, fresh and tolerably good; but if you exceed that depth, two or three feet, you come to a saltish or brackish water that is scarcely drinkable; and the earth dug up, resembles, in appearance and smell, that which is dug up on the edges of the salt marshes.

2. On and near the margin of the rivers are frequently found sand hills, which appear to have been drifted into ridges by the force of water. At the bottom of some of the banks in the rivers, fifteen or twenty feet below the surface of the earth, are washed out from the solid ground, logs, branches and leaves of trees; and the whole bank, from bottom to top, appears streaked with layers of logs, leaves and sand. These appearances are seen far up the rivers, from eighty to a hundred miles from the sea, where, when the rivers are low, the

banks are from fifteen to twenty feet high. As you proceed down the rivers towards the sea, the banks decrease in height, but still are formed of layers of sand, leaves and logs, some of which are entirely sound, and appear to have been suddenly covered to a considerable depth.

3. It has been observed that the rivers in the southern states frequently vary their channels; that the swamps and low grounds are constantly filling up; and that the land, in many places, annually infringes upon the ocean. It is an authenticated fact, that no longer ago than 1771, at Cape Lookout, on the coast of North-Carolina, in about latitude 34° 50′, there was an excellent harbour, capacious enough to receive a hundred sail of shipping at a time, in a good depth of water. It is now entirely filled up, and is solid ground. Instances of this kind are frequent along the coast.

It is observable, likewise, that there is a gradual descent of about eight hundred feet, by measurement, from the foot of the mountains to the sea board. This descent continues, as is demonstrated by soundings, far into the sea.

4. It is worthy of observation, that the soil on the banks of the rivers is proportionably coarse or fine according to its distance from the mountains. When you first leave the mountains, and for a considerable distance, it is observable, that the soil is coarse, with a large mixture of sand and shining heavy particles. As you proceed toward the sea, the soil is less coarse, and so on, in proportion as you advance, the soil is finer and finer, until, finally, is deposited a soil so fine, that it consolidates into perfect clay; but a clay of a peculiar quality, for a great part of it has intermixed with it reddish streaks and veins, like a species of *ochre*, brought probably from the red lands which lie up towards the mountains. This clay, when dug up and exposed to the weather, will dissolve into a fine mould, without the least mixture of sand or any gritty substance whatever. Now we know that running waters, when turbid, will deposite, first, the coarsest and heaviest particles; mediately, those of the several intermediate degrees of fineness; and ultimately, those which are the most light and subtile; and such in fact is the general quality of the soil on the banks of the southern rivers.

5. It is a well known fact, that on the banks of Savannah river, about ninety miles from the sea, in a direct line, and one hundred and fifty or two hundred, as the river runs, there is a very remarkable collection of oyster shells of an uncommon size. They run in a north-east and south-west direction, nearly parallel to the sea coast, in three distinct ridges, which together occupy a space of seven miles in breadth. The ridges commence at Savannah river, and have been traced as far south as the northern branches of the Alatamaha river. They are found in such quantities, as that the indigo planters carry them away in large boat loads for the purpose of making lime water, to be used in the manufacture of indigo. There are thousands and thousands of tons still remaining.* The question is, how came they

* "On the Georgia side of the river, about 15 miles below Silver Bluff, the high road crosses a ridge of high swelling hills of uncommon elevation, and perhaps 70 feet higher than the surface of the river. These hills are from three feet below the common vegetative surface, to the depth of 20 or 30 feet, composed entirely of fossil oyster shells, internally of the colour and consistency of

here? It cannot be supposed that they were carried by land. Neither is it probable that they were conveyed in canoes or boats to such a distance from the place where oysters are now found. The uncivilized natives, agreeably to their roving manner of living, would rather have removed to the sea shore, than have been at such immense labour in procuring oysters. Besides the difficulties of conveying them would have been insurmountable. They would not only have had a strong current in the river against them, an obstacle which would not have been easily overcome by the Indians, who have ever had a great aversion to labour; but could they have surmounted this difficulty, oysters conveyed such a distance either by land or water, in so warm a climate, would have spoiled on the passage, and have become useless. The circumstance of these shells being found in such quantities, at so great a distance from the sea, can be rationally accounted for in no other way, than by supposing that the sea-shore was formerly near this bed of shells, and that the ocean has since, by the operation of certain causes not yet fully investigated, receded. These phenomena, as they cannot be otherwise accounted for, prove, as far as it can be proved, that a great part of the flat country which spreads easterly of the Allegany mountains, had, in some past period, a superincumbent sea or water; but it is beyond the abilities of man to account for the change in a satisfactory manner.

Minerals.] The mineralogy of the United States has been less examined than the Zoology and Botany. In the District of Maine the founderies are supplied with bog iron ore, and there is said to be a stone, which yields copperas, or vitriol and sulphur. Aluminous earths are common in many of the states. Iron ore abounds in many places of Massachusetts. In Pennsylvania and most of the states this useful ore abounds. In Massachusetts are found copper ore, black lead, aluminous slate, asbestos and lime stone; also what has been supposed a new semi-metal. In Rhode-Island is iron and copper. On Connecticut river is a lead mine; in Connecticut is iron ore. In New-York is a silver mine; also lead, zinc, maganese, copper and coal, with gypsum, talk, and asbestos. Here and in New-Jersey, are copper mines. Native quick-silver is found near Reading in Pennsylvania. In Virginia has been discovered a bed of cinnabar. In New-York are immense quantities of sulphur. In Vermont is

clear white marble: They are of an incredible magnitude, generally 15 or 20 inches in length; from 6 to 8 wide, and from 2 to 4 in thickness, and their hollows sufficient to receive an ordinary man's foot. They appear all to have been opened before the period of petrifaction; a transmutation they seem evidently to have suffered. They are undoubtedly very ancient, or perhaps antediluvian. The adjacent inhabitants burn them to lime, for building, for which purpose they serve very well; and would undoubtedly afford an excellent manure, when their lands require it, these hills now being remarkably fertile. The heaps of shells lie upon a stratum of yellowish sand mould, of several feet in depth, upon a foundation of soft white rocks, that has the outward appearance of free-stone, but on strict examination is really a testaceous concrete, or composition of sand and pulverized sea shells. In short, this testaceous rock approaches near in quality and appearance to the Bahama or Bermudian white rock."

[*Bartram's Travels, p. 318.*]

abundance of iron ore, and inexhaustible quantities of lime stone, which takes a beautiful polish. Gold has been found in North-Carolina. In Virginia are lead and coal mines. South of the Ohio are stone coal, and salt springs. In Georgia is an immense bed of oyster shells, 90 miles from the sea. [*Barton.*]

Mountains.] The tract of country east of Hudson's river, comprehending part of the state of New-York, the four New-England States, and Vermont, is rough, hilly, and in some parts mountainous. These mountains will be more particularly described under the head of New-England. In all parts of the world, and particularly on this western continent, it is observable, that as you depart from the ocean or from a river, the land gradually rises: and the height of land, in common, is about equally distant from the water on either side. The *Andes*, in South-America, form the height of land between the Atlantick and Pacifick Oceans. The Highlands between the district of Maine and the province of Lower Canada, divide the rivers which fall into the St. Lawrence, north, and into the Atlantick, south. The Green Mountains, in Vermont, divide the waters which flow easterly into Connecticut river from those which fall westerly into Lake Champlaine, Lake George, and Hudson's river.

Between the Atlantick, the Missisippi, and the Lakes, runs a long range of mountains, made up of a number of ridges. These mountains extend north-easterly and south-westerly, nearly parallel to the sea coast, about nine hundred miles in length, and from sixty to one hundred and fifty, and two hundred miles in breadth. Mr. Evans observes, with respect to that part of these mountains which he travelled over, viz. in the back parts of Pennsylvania, that scarcely one acre in ten is capable of culture. This, however, is not the case in all parts of this range. Numerous tracts of fine arable and grazing land intervene between the ridges. The different ridges which compose this immense range of mountains have different names in different states.

As you advance from the Atlantick, the first ridge in Pennsylvania, Virginia and North Carolina, is the Blue Ridge, or South Mountain, which is from one hundred and thirty to two hundred miles from the sea. Between this and the North Mountain spreads a large fertile vale; next lies the Allegany ridge; next beyond this is the Long ridge, called the Laurel Mountains, in a spur of which, about latitude 36°, is a spring of water, fifty feet deep, very cold, and it is said, as blue as indigo. From these several ridges, proceed innumerable nameless branches or spurs. The Kittatinny Mountains run through the northern parts of New-Jersey and Pennsylvania. All these ridges, except the Allegany, are separated by rivers, which appear to have forced their passages through solid rocks.

The principal ridge is the Allegany, which has been descriptively called the back bone of the United States. The general name for these mountains, taken collectively, seems not yet to have been determined. Mr. Evans calls them the *Endless Mountains*: Others have called them the *Appalachian* mountains, from a tribe of Indians, who live on a river which proceeds from this mountain, called the Appalachicola. But the most common name is the *Allegany Moun-*

tains, so called, either from the principal ridge of the range, or from their running nearly parallel to the Allegany or Ohio river; which, from its head waters till it empties into the Missisippi, is known and called by the name of *Allegany River*, by the Seneca and other tribes of the Six Nations, who once inhabited it. These mountains are not confusedly scattered and broken, rising here and there into high peaks, overtopping each other, but stretch along in uniform ridges, scarcely half a mile high. They spread as you proceed south, and some of them terminate in high perpendicular bluffs. Others gradually subside into a level country, giving rise to the rivers which run southerly into the Gulf of Mexico.

They afford many curious phenomena, from which naturalists have deduced many theories of the earth; some of them have been very whimsical. Mr. Evans supposes that the most obvious of the theories which have been formed of the earth is, that it was originally made out of the ruins of another. "Bones and shells which escaped the fate of softer animal substances, we find mixed with the old materials, and elegantly preserved in the loose stones and rocky bases of the highest of these hills." With deference, however, to Mr. Evans's opinion, these appearances have been much more rationally accounted for by supposing the reality of the flood, of which Moses has given us an account. Mr. Evans thinks this too great a miracle to obtain belief. But whether is it a greater miracle for the Creator to alter a globe of earth by a deluge, when made, or to create one new from the ruins of another? The former certainly is not less credible than the latter. "These mountains," says our author, "existed in their present elevated height before the deluge, but not so bare of soil as now." How Mr. Evans came to be so circumstantially acquainted with these pretended facts, is difficult to determine, unless we suppose him to have been an antediluvian, and to have surveyed them accurately before the convulsions of the deluge; and until we can be fully assured of this, we must be excused in not assenting to his opinion, and in adhering to the old philosophy of Moses and his advocates. We have every reason to believe that the primitive state of the earth was totally metamorphosed by the first convulsion of nature, at the time of the deluge; that *the fountains of the great deep were indeed broken up*, and that the various *strata* of the earth were dissevered, and thrown into every possible degree of confusion and disorder. Hence those vast piles of mountains, which lift their craggy cliffs to the clouds, were probably thrown together from the floating ruins of the earth: And this conjecture is remarkably confirmed by the vast number of fossils and other marine *exuvia* which are found imbedded on the tops of mountains, in the interior parts of continents remote from the sea, in all parts of the world hitherto explored. The various circumstances attending these marine bodies, leave us to conclude, that they were actually generated, lived, and died in the very beds wherein they were found, and therefore these beds must have originally been at the bottom of the ocean, though now in many instances elevated several miles above its surface. Hence it has been supposed, that mountains and continents were not primary productions of nature, but of a very distant period

of time from the creation of the world; a time long enough for the strata to have acquired their greatest degree of cohesion and hardness; and for the testaceous matter of marine shells to become changed to a stony substance; for in the fissures of the lime-stone and other strata, fragments of the same shell have been frequently found adhering to each side of the cleft, in the very state in which they were originally broken; so that if the several parts were brought together they would apparently tally with each other exactly. A very considerable time therefore must have elapsed between the chaotick state of the earth and the deluge, which agrees with the account of Moses, who makes it a little upwards of sixteen hundred years. These observations are intended to show, in one instance out of many others, the agreement between revelation and reason, between the account which Moses gives us of the creation and deluge, and the present appearances of nature.*

Soil and Vegetable Productions.] In the United States are to be found every species of soil that the earth affords. In one part of them or another, they produce all the various kinds of fruits, grain, pulse and hortuline plants and roots, which are found in Europe, and have been thence transplanted to America. Besides these, a great variety of native, vegetable productions.

The natural history of the American States is yet in its infancy. The productions of the southern states and of Canada, have not been well described by any one author, in a work professedly for that purpose; but are mostly intermixed with the productions of other parts of the world, in the large works of European Botanists. This renders it difficult to select them, and to give an accurate connected account of them. To remedy this inconvenience, and to rescue this country from the reproach of not having any authentick and scientifick account of its Natural History, Dr. Cutler, who has already examined nearly all the vegetables of New-England, has for some time contemplated the publication of a botanical work of considerable magnitude, confined principally to the productions of the New-England States. Dr. Barton, of Philadelphia, has been collecting materials for a work of a similar nature, to comprehend the middle and southern states; when finished, both together will form a complete Natural History of the American States.

The following catalogues, furnished by Dr. Cutler, are all incomplete, and designed only to give general information concerning the natural history of New-England.

Grain, cultivated in the Eastern and Middle States. Indian Corn, several species, a native grain of North-America. The *varieties* of this grain, occasioned by difference in soil, cultivation and climate, are almost endless. Winter and summer rye. The winter rye succeeds best in ground newly cleared; but summer rye is frequently sown in old towns, where the land has been long under cultivation. The winter and summer rye are the same species, forming

* Those who wish to have this agreement more fully and satisfactorily stated, are referred to a very learned and ingenious "*Inquiry into the original state and formation of the earth*," by John Whitehurst, F. R. S. to whom I acknowledge myself indebted for some the foregoing observations.

two varieties; but the winter and summer wheat are two distinct species. Several species of barley are cultivated, the most common is the six ranked and the two ranked. The wheat principally cultivated are the winter and summer. Oats and buck wheat.

In the southern states, as far north as Virginia, where the lands are suitable, besides the grain already mentioned, they cultivate rice. This grain was brought into Carolina first by Sir Nathaniel Johnson, in 1688; and afterwards more and of a different kind, probably what botanists call *a variety*, was imported by a ship from Madagascar in 1696; till which time it was not much cultivated. It succeeds well also on the Ohio river, where it is planted both on the high and low grounds, and in the same fields with Indian corn and other grain. It has yielded at the rate of 80 bushels an acre. At Marietta, it has answered the most sanguine expectations of the inhabitants, producing equal to any other grain, without being at any time overflowed with water. It was not of the same species of the Carolina rice. It is probably the wild rice, which grows in plenty, in some of the interior parts of North-America, and is the most valuable of all the spontaneous productions of the country. In Pennsylvania there grows a sort of grain, called by the Germans, *Spelts*, which resembles wheat; and is a very valuable grain.

Cultivated Grasses in the Eastern and Middle States. Most of the grasses in the Middle and New-England States, are indigenous. It is not improbable that some of them may be naturalized exoticks. The following are the principal grasses sown in the cultivated ground, or in any way propagated for feed and hay.

Herds Grass or Fox tail, which is reckoned the best grass, is a native, and supposed to be peculiar to this country. Blue Grass. Many species of Bent, particularly the Rhode-Island Bent. The small and great English grass, Wire grass, Fowl Meadow grass,* red and white Clover.

The grasses of Virginia, according to Mr. Jefferson, are Lucerne, St. Foin, Burnet, Timothy, Ray and Orchard grass, red, white and yellow Clover; Greensward, Blue grass and Crab grass. South of Virginia very little attention is paid to the cultivation of grasses. The winters are so mild, that the cattle find a tolerable supply of food in the woods.

Native Grasses in New-England. Besides the cultivated grasses, already mentioned, New-England has a great variety which are found growing in their native soils and situations, many of which have not been described by any botanical writers. The small experiments which have been made, sufficiently evince that several of them make excellent hay. They might be greatly improved by cultivation, and are highly worthy the attention of the farmers. Those which are found most common are the following, viz. The Vernal grass. Timothy, or bulbus cat's tail grass. Several species of Panick grass. Several species of Bent. Hair grass. Numerous species of *Poa*.

* "The Fowl meadows, on Neponsit river, between Dedham and Stoughton, are considered by some a curiosity. A large tract of land is there cleared and mowed with an excellent kind of grass, without the assistance of man." [*Dr. Fisher.*]

Quaking grass, several species. Cock's Foot grass. Millet. Fesque grass, many species. Oat grass. Reed grass, several species. Brome grass. Lime grass. Barley grass. Dog's or Couch grass. Many species of Rush grass. Numerous species of *Carex*, in fresh and salt marshy ground. Several species of Beard grass. Soft grass. Besides these there are many valuable grasses which, at present, are nondescripts.

Wild Fruits in New-England.] Black Currant, Gooseberry, Prickly Gooseberry. Two species of Grapes—the Black Grape and Fox Grape. Of these two species we have many *varieties*, differing only in size, colour and taste. An excellent wine, and in large quantities, has lately been made by the French people at their new settlement on the Ohio river, from the native grapes, without any kind of cultivation. They collected the grapes promiscuously from all the varieties growing in that country. By separating them, wines of a different, and no doubt some of them of a much better quality, might have been made. The native grape is propagated with great ease; its growth is luxuriant, overspreading the highest trees in the forests, and, by proper attention to the cultivation of the wine grape, would afford an ample supply of wines, in the northern as well as southern states. The principal difficulty seems to be a want of a proper knowledge of the process in making wine, and preparing it for use. Barberry bush, Whortleberry, Blueberry, White Whortleberry, Indian Gooseberry, Long leaved Whortleberry, Craneberry, Red and Yellow Plum, Beach Plum, Large black Cherry, Purple Cherry, Wild red Cherry, Dwarf or Choke Cherry, Mountain Cherry, Service tree, Bramble berry, Sowteat Blackberry or Bumblekites, Briar Blackberry, Dewberry, Common Raspberry, smooth stalked Raspberry, White Raspberry, Superb Raspberry, Mulberry, Strawberry. The native strawberry is much improved by cultivation, and produces a larger and better flavoured fruit than the exotick.

For information on this article respecting the southern states, the reader may consult what Catesby, Clayton, Jefferson and Bartram have written upon it.

Nut Fruit.] White Oak, Red Oak and several other species with smaller fruit. Black Walnut, White Walnut, Butternut, or Oilnut, White, or round nut Hiccory, Shagbark Hiccory,* Chesnut, Chinquipin, or Dwarf Chesnut, Beechnut, Hazelnut, Filbert.

We may here mention the Peccan or Illinois nut. This nut is about the size of a large long acorn, and of an oval form, the shell is easily cracked, and the kernel shaped like that of a walnut. The trees which bear this fruit grow, naturally, on the Missisippi and its branches, south of forty degrees north latitude. They grow well when planted in the southern Atlantick states.

Medicinal Plants in New-England.] Among the native and uncultivated plants of New-England, the following have been employed for medicinal purposes.† Water Horehound, Blue Flag, Skunk Cabbage,

*The same, probably, as Clayton's Scaly bark Hiccory of Virginia.

† It is not to be understood that *all* these plants are considered as deserving the attention of physicians, nor yet that this catalogue includes *all* that are used by mere dabblers in medicine, male and female, black and white and red, otherwise it must include the whole vegetable kingdom.

Partridgeberry, Great and Marsh Plantain, Witch Hazel, Hounds tongue, Comfrey, Bear's ear Sanicle, Appleperu, Bittersweet, Tivertwig, or American Mazerion, Elm,* Great Laserwort and Wild Angelica, Cow parsnep. This plant is possessed of valuable medicinal properties. Angelica, or American Masterwort, Water Elder, Elder, Chickweed, Pettimorrel or life of Man, Sarsaparilla, Marsh Rosemary, Sundew, Solomon's Seal, Adder's tongue, Unicorn, Sweet Flag, several species of Dock, Bistort, Arsmart, Spicewood or Feverbush, Sassafras, Consumption root, Rheumatism weed, Mouse ear, Gargit or Skoke, Wild Hyssop, Agrimony, Common Avens, or herb Bennet, Water Evens, or Throat root, Cohush. This is a valuable plant. Blood root, or Puccoon, Celandine, Yellow Water Lily, Pond Lily, Golden thread or mouth root, Liverwort, Crowsfoot, Germander, Catmint, or Catnip, Head Betony, Horsemint, Spearmint, Watermint and Penniroyal, Ground Ivy, or Gill-go-over-the-ground, Hedge nettle, Horehound, Motherwort, Wild Marjorum, Wild Lavender, Wood Betony, Shepherd's purse or pouch, Water Cresses, Cranesbill, Marsh Mallow, Mallow, Succory, Burdock, Devil's bit. The root resembles the European Devil's bit, from which circumstance the English name has probably been applied to this plant. Tansey, Wormwood, Life everlasting, Colt's foot, Golden rod, Elecampane, Mayweed, Yarrow, American Pride, three other species of Lobelia, Dragon root, Stinging Nettle, White Walnut, Butternut, or Oilnut, Swamp Willow, Sweet Gale, White Hellebore or Pokeroot, Moonwort, Female Fern, Harts tongue, Spleenwort, Lungwort, Black Maidenhair.

Among a great variety of other medicinal plants in the southern and middle states are Indian Pink root, an excellent vermifuge—Senna, Clivers or Goose grass, Palma Christi, from which the Castor oil is extracted, several species of Mallow—Indian Physick, Pleurisy root, Virginia Snake root, Black snake root, Seneca rattle-snake root, Valerian, Ginseng, Angelica, Cassava.

Forest Trees.] Were we possessed of accurate materials for the purpose, it would far exceed the limits of a work embracing such a variety of subjects, to give a complete catalogue of our trees. From the foregoing catalogues the reader must necessarily conclude that they are very numerous. And it ought to be observed that almost all of them, for some purpose or other, have been used as timber. Some of the most useful species of trees, however, must not be omitted, and are the following: *Elm.* Of this tree there is but one species, of which there are two varieties, the white and the red. *Wild Cherry;* many species, highly valued for cabinet work. *Locust;* of quick growth, good for fuel, and excellent for posts to set in the ground, and trunnels for ships. These trees are much more scarce than formerly. A species of worm has destroyed many of them. *Birch;* several species—White, Black, Red or Yellow. *Oak;* several species—Black, Red, three varieties. White Shrub or ground oak, Chesnut oak, Live oak, Black Jack oak. The two last are peculiar to the southern states. *Chesnut;* chiefly used for fencing. *Beech;* three varieties.

* The bark of the Sweet Elm is a most excellent mucilage.

Pine; eight species—White, the prince of the American forests, in size and majesty of appearance. It is found in the greatest abundance in Maine, New-Hampshire and Vermont—excellent for masts, bowsprits and yards for ships. Yellow pine; its plank and boards are used for the floors of houses and the decks of ships. Norway pine, Black or Pitch Pine; when burnt in kilns it makes the best of charcoal; its knots and roots being full of the terebinthine oil, when kindled, afford a brighter light than candles; its soot is collected and used for lampblack. It grows thinly in the New-England and middle, but in the greatest plenty in the southern states, between the sea coast and the mountains. From it they make tar in large quantities. The Larch pine; its turpentine is said to be the same with the Burgundy pitch. Besides these, naturalists reckon the Fir, Spruce, Hemlock. *White Cedar*. *Juniper* or *Red Cedar*; it produces the Juniper-berry, which is used in the gin distilleries, and is said to be of a much better quality for making gin than the juniper-berries imported from Europe, which are the fruit of a different species. *White Cedar*, of the southern states, different from the white cedar of the northern states. *Cypress*; found only in the southern states. Used for shingles and other purposes. Grows in swamps very large. *White Willow*; the bark of its root is an excellent substitute for the Peruvian bark. *Ash*; two species—Black or Swamp Ash and White Ash. *Maple*; three species—White, much used in cabinet work, Red, Black Rock or Sugar Maple; its sap has a saccharine quality: and when refined and hardened by boiling and baking, makes a well tasted and wholesome sugar, the manufacture of which has greatly increased in the eastern and middle states, within a few years past.

There is in the United States an infinitude of trees of less note, and many probably equally noticeable with those enumerated, for a catalogue and description of which, the reader is referred (till a more perfect catalogue be furnished by Dr. Cutler and Dr. Barton) to Catesby's Natural History—Marshall's Arbustum Americanum—Dr. Clayton's Flora Virginica—Mr. Jefferson's Notes on Virginia—Mr. Bartram's Travels through North and South-Carolina, &c.—Dr. Cutler's paper in the Memoirs of the American Academy—and Dr. Belknap's History of New-Hampshire, Vol. III.

Exotick Fruits.] Of these, Apples are the most common in the United States. They grow in the greatest plenty and variety in the eastern and middle states; and the cider which is extracted from them affords the most common and wholesome liquor that is drank by the inhabitants. The *Crab Apple*, though not an exotick, on account of its being a genuine, but distinct species of the Apple, ought to be mentioned in this connection. It grows in all parts of North-America, which have been explored, from the Atlantick as far west as the Missisippi. Its blossoms are remarkably fragrant; its fruit small, possessing, perhaps of all vegetables, the keenest acid. The cider made of this fruit is admired by connoisseurs. It makes excellent vinegar. The European Crab Apple is very different from this. The other exotick fruits are pears, peaches, quinces, mulberries, plums, cherries, currants, barberries; of all which, except quinces and barberries, we may have many species and varieties. These with a few

apricots, and nectarines, flourish in the eastern states, and are in perfection in the middle states.*

The exotick fruits of the southern states, besides those already mentioned, are figs, oranges and lemons.

Pulse and Hortuline Plants and Roots.] Besides those transplanted from Europe to America, of which we have all the various kinds that Europe produces, the following are natives of this country; Potatoes, Ground Nuts, a sort of potatoe, probably a species highly relished by some people. Tobacco, Pumpkins, Cymlings, Squashes, Cantelope, Melons, Beans, Peas, Hops. Probably others.

Animals.] America contains at least one half, and the territory of the United States about one fourth of the quadrupeds of the known world. Some of them are common to North-America, and to the European and Asiatick parts of the Eastern Continent; others are peculiar to this country. All those that are common to both continents are found in the northern parts of them, and are such as may be supposed to have migrated from one continent to the other. Comparing individuals of the same species, inhabiting the different continents, some are perfectly similar; between others there is some difference in size, colour or other circumstances; in some few instances the European animal is larger than the American; generally the reverse is true. A similar variety, arising from the temperature of the climate, quantity of food furnished in the parts they inhabit, degree of safety,† &c. takes place between individuals of the same species, in different parts of this continent.

But our information on this subject is not sufficient to authorise many observations. It is very probable that some of our quadrupeds are utterly unknown; others are known only by common report, from hunters and others, and therefore cannot be described; and, with respect to many others, the multiplying and misapplying names has produced great uncertainty and confusion.

Dr. Cutler has paid considerable attention to the history of our animals, after the manner of Linnæus, but not sufficient to ascertain their distinguishing characters, and to furnish a perfect catalogue. As the Linnæan mode of treating this subject is liable to many exceptions, we entertain a hope that the Doctor will shortly furnish the publick with a more complete catalogue than has yet appeared, upon the plan of Mr. Pennant, who has greatly improved upon Linnæus.

The importance of this part of our natural history has induced the author to pay the most assiduous attention to it, and to seek information from every authority on the subject. With the liberal

* "In regard to tree fruit," says Dr. Tenney, "we are in too northern a climate to have it of the first quality, without particular attention. New-York, New-Jersey and Pennsylvania have it in perfection. As you depart from that tract, either southward or northward, it degenerates. I believe, however, that good fruit might be produced even in New-Hampshire, with suitable attention. [*Belknap's Hist. N H. Vol. III. p.* 140.]

† Animals in America which have been hunted for their flesh or fur, such as the moose, deer, beaver, &c. have become less in size since the arrival of the Europeans.

and generous assistance of an ingenious friend,* he has been enabled to form the following catalogue of the Quadrupeds within the United States, and to add the descriptions of them which succeed.

Mammoth	* Grey Cougar	Urchin	* Shrew Mouse
* Bison	* Mountain Cat	* Hare	* Purple Mole
* Moose	* Lynx	* Racoon	* Black Mole
* Caribou	* Kincajou	* Fox Squirrel	* Water Rat
* Red Deer	* Weasel	* Grey Squirrel	* Beaver
* Fallow Deer	* Ermine	* Red Squirrel	* Musquash
* Roe	* Martin	* Striped Squir.	* Morse
* Bear	* Mink	* Flying Squir.	* Seal
* Wolverene	* Otter	* Field Mouse	Maniti
* Wolf	* Fisher	Bat	Sapajou†
* Fox	* Skunk	* Ground Mouse	Sagoin†
* Catamount	* Opossum	* Wood Rat	
* Sallow Cougar	* Woodchuck	* American Rat	

N. B. Those animals to which an asterism (*) is prefixed, are fur animals, whose skins are sometimes dressed in alum, with the hair on, and worn in dress; or whose fur or soft hair is used for various manufactural purposes.

The Fallow Deer, Grey Fox, Martin, Otter, Opossum, Woodchuck, Hare, some of the Squirrels, and the Beaver, have been tamed. Probably most of these, and some others, might be perfectly domesticated. It has been observed of our wild animals in general, that they are not of so savage a nature as those in Europe.

Mammoth. This name has been given to an unknown animal, whose bones are found in the northern parts of both the old and new world. From the form of their teeth, they are supposed to have been carnivorous. Like the elephant they were armed with tusks of ivory; but they obviously differed from the elephant in size; their bones prove them to have been 5 or 6 times as large. These enormous bones are found in several parts of North-America,‡ particularly about the salt licks or springs, near the Ohio river. These licks were formerly frequented by a vast number of graminivorous animals,

* Dr. Fisher, of Beverly.

† It is not certain that the Sapajou and Sagoin are found as far to the north as lat. 32°, i. e. within the limits of the United States; but it is very probable, and it is certain, they are found in the vicinity.

‡ Col. G. Morgan, in a note to the author, says they are found "only at the salt licks on the Ohio; some few scattered grinders have indeed been found in other places; but it has been supposed these have been brought from the above mentioned deposite, by Indian warriors and others who have passed it; as we know many have been spread in this manner.* When I first visited this salt lick, (says the Col.) in 1766, I met here a large party of the Iroquois and Wyandot Indians, who were then on a war expedition against the Chickasaw tribe. The head chief was a very old man, to be engaged in war; he told me he was 84 years old; he was probably as much as 80. I fixed on this venerable chief, as a person from whom some knowledge might be obtained. After making him some small

* A Mammoth's tooth was dug up at Sharon in Connecticut, Nov. 1796, and transmitted to the Museum at Yale College, by the Hon. John Cotton Smith, Esq. It was found about 3 feet below the surface, and, when first dug up, weighed three pounds, and tenounces. Bones of this animal have been found in the state of New-York, and other places, where, no doubt, the animal died.

on account of the salt, of which they are excessively fond. From the appearance of these bones, some of which are entirely above ground, others wholly buried, it is probable that the animals died at different periods; some perhaps as lately as the first settlement of this country by the Europeans.

Mr. Jefferson informs us, that a late governour of Virginia, having asked some delegates of the Delawares what they knew or had heard respecting this animal, the chief speaker immediately put himself into an oratorial attitude, and with a pomp suited to the supposed elevation of his subject, informed him, that it was a tradition handed down from their fathers, "That in ancient times a herd of them came to the Big-bone licks, and began a universal destruction of the bears, deer, elks, buffaloes and other animals, which had been created for the use of the Indians; that the Great Man above, looking down and seeing this, was so enraged, that he seized his lightning, descended to the earth, seated himself upon a neighbouring mountain, on a rock, on which his seat and the print of his feet are still to be seen, and hurled his bolts among them till the whole were slaughtered, except the big-bull, who, presenting his forehead to the shafts, shook

acceptable presents of tobacco, paint, ammunition, &c. and complimenting him upon the wisdom of his nation, their prowess in war and prudence in peace, intimated to him my ignorance respecting the great bones before us, whichnothing but his superior knowledge could remove; and accordingly requested him to inform me what he knew concerning them. Agreeably to the customs of his nation, he answered me in substance as follows:

"Whilst I was yet a boy I passed this road, several times, to war against the Catawbas; and the wise old chiefs, among whom was my grandfather, then gave me the tradition, handed down to us, respecting these bones, the like to which are found in no other part of the country." It is as follows:

"After the Great Spirit first formed the world, he made the various birds and beasts which now inhabit it. He also made man; but having formed him white, and very imperfect and ill-tempered, he placed him on one side of it where he now inhabits, and from whence he has lately found a passage across the great water to be a plague to us. As the Great Spirit was not pleased with this his work, he took of black clay, and made what *you* call a Negro, with a woolly head. This black man was much better than the white man, but still he did not answer the wish of the Great Spirit; that is, he was imperfect. At last, the Great Spirit having procured a piece of pure, fine red clay, formed from it the Red Man, perfectly to his mind; and he was so well pleased with him, that he placed him on this great island, separate from the white and black men; and gave him rules for his conduct, promising happiness in proportion as they should be observed. He increased exceedingly, and was perfectly happy for ages; but the foolish young people, at length forgetting his rules, became exceedingly ill-tempered and wicked. In consequence of this, the Great Spirit created the great buffaloe, the bones of which you now see before us; these made war upon the human species alone, and destroyed all but a few, who repented and promised the Great Spirit to live according to his laws, if he would restrain the devouring enemy: Whereupon he sent lightning and thunder, and destroyed the whole race in this spot, two excepted, a male and a female, which he shut up in yonder mountain, ready to let loose again, should occasion require."

Col. Morgan adds, "I have every material bone of the anatomy of this animal, with several jaw-bones in which the grinders are entire; and several of the great tusks, one of which is six feet long."—He adds, and "twenty in circumference." But supposing some mistake, and that probably the word *inches* ought to have been added to the *twenty*, I have not ventured to add it, or to alter it.

Salt works, of considerable importance, have been established at the lick, where these bones are found.

them off as they fell ; but at length missing one, it wounded him in the side ; whereon, springing round, he bounded over the Ohio, the Wabash, the Illinois, and finally over the great lakes, where he is living at this day."*

Bison, or Wild Ox. This animal has generally been called the Buffaloe, but very improperly, as this name has been appropriated to another animal. He is of the same species with our common neat cattle ; their difference being the effect of the domestication of the latter. Compared with the domestick Ox, the Bison is considerably larger, especially about the fore parts of his body. On his shoulders arises a large fleshy or grisly substance, which extends along the back. The hair on his head, neck and shoulders, is long and woolly, and all of it is fit to be spun, or wrought into hats. Calves from the domestick cow and wild-bull are sometimes raised ; but when they grow up, they become so wild that no common fence will confine them.—Is found in the middle states.

These animals were once exceedingly numerous in the western parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania ; and so late as the year 1766, herds of 400 were frequently seen in Kentucky. This animal is found of the largest size, and in the greatest numbers, on the Missisippi, in about 43° N. lat. corresponding in climate to about 42° on the Atlantick coast, which is found to be most favourable to the ox.

The American forests abound with various animals of the deer kind. Naturalists have arranged them differently. I have followed M. de Buffon, who has reduced them all to the several species known in Europe.

Moose. Of these there are two kinds, the black and the grey. The black are said to have been from 8 to 12 feet high ; at present they are very rarely seen. The grey Moose are generally as tall as a horse, and some are much taller ; both having spreading, palmated horns, weighing from 30 to 40 pounds ; these are shed annually in the month of February. They never run, but trot with amazing speed. In summer they feed on wild grasses, and the leaves of the most mucilaginous shrubs. In winter they form herds ; and when the snow falls, by moving constantly in a small circle they tread the snow hard, and form what is called a pen. While the snow is deep and will not bear them, they are confined within this pen, and eat all the bark and twigs within their reach. They are considered as of the same species with the Elk of the eastern continent.—They are found in New-England.

Caribou. This animal is distinguished by its branching, palmated horns, with brow antlers. He is probably the rein-deer of the northern parts of Europe. From the tendons of this animal, as well as of the Moose, the aboriginal natives made very tolerable thread.—Found in the District of Maine.

* It has been said by Mr. Jefferson, that the grinders of the Mammoth are five or six times as large as those of the Elephant. Col. Morgan says not ; "I have seen," he observes, "the grinder of an Elephant, as large and as heavy as the largest of the Mammoth. They are indeed thinner, deeper rooted and differently shaped, denoting a graminivorous animal ; whereas the grinders of the Mammoth resemble those of a wolf or dog, and shew them to have been carnivorous."

DEER. The *Red Deer** has round branching horns. Of this species we have three or four different kinds or varieties; one of which, found on the Ohio river, and in its vicinity, is very large, and there commonly called the Elk.

The FALLOW DEER* has branching palmated horns. In the United States these animals are larger than the European, of a different colour, and supposed by some to be of a different species. In the southern states are several animals supposed to be varieties of the ROE DEER.*

BEAR. Of this animal two sorts are found in the northern states; both are black, but different in their forms and habits. One has short legs, a thick clumsy body, is generally fat, and is very fond of sweet, vegetable food, such as sweet apples, Indian corn in the milk, berries, grapes, honey, &c. Probably he is not carnivorous. As soon as the first snow falls he betakes himself to his den, which is a hole in a cleft of rocks, a hollow tree or some such place; here he gradually becomes torpid; and dozes away the winter, sucking his paws, and expending the stock of fat which he had previously acquired.

The other sort is distinguished by the name of the Ranging Bear, and seems to be a grade between the preceding and the wolf. His legs are longer, and his body more lean and gaunt. He is carnivorous, frequently destroying calves, sheep and pigs, and sometimes children. In winter he migrates from the north to the southward. The *former* appears to be the common black bear of Europe, but larger, some weighing upwards of 400 pounds; the *latter* corresponds to the brown bear of the Alps; and is probably of the same species with those spoken of 2 Kings ii. 24th, which formerly inhabited the mountainous parts of Judea, between Jericho and Bethel.—Found in all the states.

The WOLVERENE, called in Canada the Carcajou, and by hunters the Beaver-eater, seems to be a grade between the bear and the woodchuck. He is probably the badger of Europe. His length is 1½ feet and upwards; his circumference nearly two feet; his head and ears resemble a woodchuck's; his legs short; feet and paws large and strong; tail about 7 inches long, black and very bushy or shaggy; hair, about two inches long, and very coarse; his head sallow grey; back, almost black; breast, spotted with white; belly, dark brown; sides and rump, light reddish brown. This animal lives in holes, cannot run fast, and has a clumsy appearance. He is very mischievous to hunters, following them when setting their traps, and destroying their game, particularly the beaver. Found in the northern states.

WOLF. Of this animal, which is of the dog kind, or rather the dog himself in his savage state, we have great numbers, and a considerable variety in size and colour. The dimensions of a skin, measured while writing this account, were as follows: Length of the body 5 feet; the fore legs 18 inches; of the hind legs 15 inches; of

* The male of the Red Deer is called *Stag*; the female, *Hind*; the young, *Calf*. The male of the Fallow Deer is called *Buck*; the female, *Doe*; the young *Fawn*. The *Roe Buck* and *Roe Doe* are the male and female of the Roe.

the tail 18 inches. The circumference of the body was from 2½ to 3 feet. The colour of these animals in the northern states, is generally a light, dirty sallow, with a list of black along their back. In some, the black is extended down their sides, and sometimes forms waving streaks; others are said to be spotted: Some of them, particularly in the southern states, are entirely black, and considerably smaller. The Indians are said to have so far tamed some of these animals before their acquaintance with the Europeans, as to have used them in hunting. They next made use of European dogs, and afterwards of mongrels, the offspring of the wolf and dog, as being more docile than the former, and more eager in the chase than the latter. The appearance of many of the dogs, in the newly settled parts of the country, indicate their relation to the wolf.—Found in all the states.

Fox. Of Foxes we have a great variety; such as the Silver Fox, Red Fox, Grey Fox, Cross Fox, Brant Fox, and several others. Naturalists have generally supposed that there is more than one species of Foxes, but they differ very much in their mode of arranging them. It is highly probable, however, that there is but one species of these animals, as they are found in all their varieties of size, and of shades variously intermixed, in different parts of the United States. Foxes and other animals furnished with fur, of the northern states, are larger than those of the southern.

Catamount. This animal, the most dreaded by hunters of any of the inhabitants of the forests, is rarely seen, which is probably the reason why no account of him has ever been published, to our knowledge, except what is contained in a letter of Mr. Collinson's to M. de Buffon. The dimensions of one, killed a few years ago, in New-Hampshire, as nearly as could be ascertained by the skin, were as follows: The length of his body (including the head) 6 feet; circumference of his body 2½ feet; length of his tail 3 feet, and of his legs about 1 foot. The colour, along his back, is nearly black; on his sides, a dark reddish brown; his feet black. He seems not calculated for running, but leaps with surprizing agility. His favourite food is blood, which like other animals of the cat kind, he takes from the jugular vessels of cattle, deer, &c. leaving the carcass. Smaller prey he takes to his den; and he has been known to carry off a child. He seems to be allured by fire, which terrifies all other carnivorous animals, and betrays no fear of either man or beast.—He is found in the northern and middle states.

Sallow Cougar. The body of this animal is about 5 feet long; his legs longer in proportion to his body, than those of the common cat. His colour is a dark sallow. In his habits and manners he resembles the rest of the family.—He is found in the southern states, and there called the Tyger.

Grey Cougar. This animal in its form resembles the preceding; but is of a uniform grey colour, and of a larger size. One of about a year and a half old was lately shewn in Charlestown. He had been reared in confinement and was then growing. His body measured about 5 feet, and his tail three. Some are *said* to have been found in their native forests nearly twice as long. He played with a cat, as a

cat does with a mouse, and afterwards killed and ate it. It is strong, active, fierce and untameable.—Found in the western parts of the middle states.

Mountain Cat. (*Pardalis*, Linn. *Ocelot*, de Buffon.) The length of his body is from 3½ to 4 feet; his tail is about 2 feet. His colour is a sallow ground, with black spots and stripes. The male has a black list along his back, and is the most beautiful animal of the cat kind. He is exceedingly fierce, but will seldom attack a man.—Found in the southern states.

Lynx. We have three kinds of the Lynx, each probably forming a distinct species. The *first* (*Lupus cervarius*, Linn. 3d. Edit.) is called by the French and English Americans, *Loup cervier*.* He is from 2½ to 3 feet in length; his tail is about 5 inches. His hair is long, of a light grey colour, forming, in some places, small, irregular, dark shades; the end of his tail is black. His fur is fine and thick. He is the Lynx of Siberia, and some of the northern parts of Europe. A few may be found in the north-eastern parts of the District of Maine; but in the higher latitudes they are more numerous.

The *second* (*Catus cervarius*, Linn.) is called by the French Americans, *Chat cervier*; and in New-England the Wild-cat. He is considerably less than the former, or the *Loup cervier*. He is from 2 to 2½ feet long; his tail is proportionably shorter, about three inches long, and wants the tuft of black hair on the end of it. His hair is shorter, particularly on his legs and feet; is of a darker colour, brown, dark sallow and grey, variously intermixed. His fur is said to be of a very different quality; his ears are shorter, and he has very little of the pencil of black hairs on the tips of them, which is so remarkable in the former kind. This animal destroyed many of the cattle of the first settlers of New-England.

The *third* species is about the size of a common cat. The colour of the male is a bright brown or bay, with black spots on his legs. His tail is about 4 inches long, and encircled by 8 white rings: The female is of a reddish grey.—Found in the middle and southern states.

Kincajou. This animal is frequently confounded with the Carcajou, though he resembles him in nothing but the name. He belongs to the family of cats; at least he very much resembles them. He is about as large as a common cat, and is better formed for agility and speed, than for strength. His tail gradually tapers to the end, and is as long as his whole body. His colour is yellow. Between him and the fox there is perpetual war. He hunts in the same manner as do other animals of that class; but being able to suspend himself by twining the end of his tail round the limb of a tree, or the like, he can pursue his prey where other cats cannot; and when he attacks a large animal, his tail enables him to secure his hold till he can open the blood vessels of the neck. In some parts of Canada, these animals are very numerous, and make great havock among the deer, and do not spare even the neat cattle. But we have heard of none in these states, except a few in the northern parts of New-Hampshire.

* Pronounced Looservee.

The WEASEL is about 9 inches in length; his body is remarkably round and slender; his tail long and well furnished with hair; his legs very short, and his toes armed with sharp claws. His hair is short and thick, and of a pale, yellowish colour, except about the breast, where it is white. This is a very sprightly animal; notwithstanding the shortness of its legs, it seems to dart rather than to run. He kills and eats rats, striped squirrels and other small quadrupeds: He likewise kills fowls, sucks their blood, and esteems their eggs a delicacy.

The ERMINE does not differ materially from the Weasel, in size, form or habits; even his colour is the same in summer, except that the end of his tail is black, and the edges of his ears and toes are white. In winter he is entirely white, except the tip of the tail. He is generally considered as forming a species distinct from the Weasel; but Linnæus makes them the same.—They are found in Canada; and Dr. Belknap mentions that a few have been seen in New-Hampshire.

In addition to the preceding, we have another variety of this family. It appears to differ from the Weasel in no respect except its colour, which is perfectly white, both in summer and winter.

MARTIN. This animal is called the Martin *(Marte)* by M. de Buffon: In England, the pine Martin, fir Martin, yellow breasted Martin, pine Weasel, and yellow breasted Weasel; in New-England, the Sable; and by the Indians, Wauppanaugh. He is formed like the Weasel; is generally about 16 inches long, and is of a sallow colour; but his size, and the shades of his colour, vary in different parts of the country. Some have spots of yellow on the breast, others of white, and others have none. He keeps in forests, chiefly on trees, and lives by hunting.—Found in the northern states.

MINK. The Mink is about as large as a Martin, and of the same form. The hair on its tail is shorter; its colour is generally black; some have a white spot under their throats, others have none; they burrow in the ground, and pursue their prey both in fresh and salt water. Those which frequent the salt water are of a larger size, lighter colour, and have inferior fur. They are found in considerable numbers both in the southern and northern states.

OTTER. The Otter very much resembles the Mink in its form and habits. Its colour is not so dark; its size much larger, being about 3 feet long and 15 inches in circumference. It lives in holes in banks near the water, and feeds on fish and amphibious animals.—Found in all the states.

FISHER. In Canada he is called Pekan; in these states frequently the Black cat, but improperly, as he does not belong to the class of cats. He has a general resemblance to the Martin, but is considerably larger, being from 20 to 24 inches in length, and 12 in circumference. His tail is little more than half his length; its hair long and bushy. His fore legs about 4½ inches long, his hinder legs 6 inches. His ears short and round. His colour is black, except the head, neck and shoulders, which are a dark grey. He lives by hunting, and occasionally pursues his prey in the water.—Found in the northern states.

Skunk. This animal is about a foot and a half long, of a moderate height, and size in proportion to his length. His tail is long and bushy; his hair long and chiefly black; but on his head, neck and back is found more or less of white, without any regularity or uniformity. He appears to see but indifferently, when the sun shines; and therefore, in the day time, keeps close to his burrow. As soon as the twilight commences, he goes in quest of his food, which is principally beetles and other insects: He is also very fond of eggs and young chickens. His flesh is said to be tolerably good, and his fat is sometimes used as an emollient. But what renders this animal remarkable is his being furnished with organs for secreting and retaining a liquor, volatile and fetid beyond any thing known, and which he has the power of emitting to the distance of a rod or more, when necessary for his defence. When this ammunition is expended he is quite harmless.* This volatile fætor is a powerful antispasmodick.—Found in all the states.

Another *Stinkard* called the *Squash*, is said by Buffon to be found in some of the southern states. He is of a chesnut colour; climbs trees and kills poultry.

Opossum. This animal is about a foot and a half long; has a long pointed nose, furnished with long stiff hairs; ears thin and naked; tail naked, nearly as long as the body, and capable of holding the animal suspended; legs short; feet small and naked. He uses his fore paws like a monkey. His body is well covered with a woolly fur, white at the roots and black at the ends. His hair is long, thin and coarse; its colour black and white, forming a grey of various shades; and these different shades are often so intermixed as to give a spotted or variegated appearance. But the most singular part of this animal is a kind of false belly or pouch, with which the female is furnished; it is formed by a duplicature of the skin; is so placed as

* Concerning the American Skunk, Dr. Mitchill, in a letter to Dr. Post, (1788) writes thus: "Not long since I had an opportunity to dissect the American skunk, *(Viverra putorius*, Linn.) The most remarkable appearances, on examination, were the following: The skin was exceedingly lax, insomuch that when pulled away from the subjacent membrane, the hairs, in many places drawn through it, were left rooted in the fat; the urine possessed no more fætor than is common to that excrementitious fluid in many other animals; but the peculiar odoriferous substance which the creature emits when pursued, proceeds from two sacs, each capable of containing about half an ounce, situated at the extremity of the *intestinum rectum*, and surrounded by large and strong circular muscles, which, contracting by a voluntary exertion, force out the thick, yellowish liquor, through two ducts, opening near the verge of the anus. As the animal is neither swift nor strong, this seems to have been given it as a defence against its enemies, on whose approach the volatile matter is discharged with considerable force, and to no small distance. From its analogy to musk, ambergrease, civet and castor, I am strongly inclined to think it might be with advantage ranked among the *antispasmodicks of the materia medica, or classed with drugs in the shops of perfumers.*

"A similar substance, although not so abundant and fragrant, I have likewise found in bags of the same kind, when I dissected the common weasel, *(Mustela vulgaris)* which in all probability will be found to possess virtues not much differing from the *Spodnar*, or liquor of the *Viverra*, or the American skunk.

"The Musquash, *(Castor muschatus)* which I have also dissected, has no sacs of this kind, and therefore I am forcibly led to suspect that its odour resides in the cuticular exhalants, and perspired matter."

to include her teats, and has an aperture which she can open and shut at pleasure. She brings forth her young from four to six at a time, while they are not bigger than a bean; incloses them in this pouch, and they, from a principle of instinct, affix themselves to her teats: Here they remain and are nourished till they are able to run about, and are afterwards taken in occasionally, particularly in times of danger. The Opossum feeds on vegetables, particularly fruit. He likewise kills poultry, sucks their blood and eats their eggs. His fat is used instead of lard or butter.—Found in the southern and middle states.

Woodchuck. (*Monax*, de Buffon.) His body is about 16 inches long, and nearly the same in circumference; his tail is moderately long, and full of hair. His colour is a mixture of sallow and grey. He digs a burrow in or near some cultivated field, and feeds on pulse, the tops of cultivated clover, &c. He is generally very fat, excepting in the spring. The young are good meat; the old are rather rank and disagreeable. In the beginning of October they generally retire to their burrows, and live in a torpid state about six months. In many respects he agrees with the *Marmot* of the Alps; in others he differs, and on the whole is probably not the same.

An animal resembling the Woodchuck is found in the southern states, which is supposed to form another species.

Urchin. The Urchin, or Urson, is two about two feet in length, and, when fat, the same in circumference. He is commonly called Hedge-hog or Porcupine, but differs from both these animals in every characteristick mark, excepting his being armed with quills on his back and sides. These quills are nearly as large as a wheat straw; from three to four inches long, and, unless erected, nearly covered by the animal's hair. Their points are very hard, and filled with innumerable very small barbs or scales, whose points are raised from the body of the quill. When the Urchin is attacked by a dog, wolf, or other beast of prey, he throws himself into a posture of defence, by shortening his body, elevating his back, and erecting his quills. The assailant soon finds some of those weapons stuck into his mouth, or other part of his body, and every effort which he makes to free himself, causes them to penetrate the farther; they have been known to bury themselves entirely in a few minutes. Sometimes they prove fatal; at other times they make their way out again through the skin from various parts of the body. If not molested, the Urchin is an inoffensive animal. He finds a hole or hollow which he makes his residence, and feeds on the bark and roots of vegetables. His flesh in the opinion of *hunters*, is equal to that of a sucking pig.—Is found in the northern states.

Hare. Of this animal we have two kinds, which appear to be different species: The one is commonly called the White Rabbit or Coney; the other simply the Rabbit; but from the proportional length of their hinder legs, and other specifick marks, they both belong to the family of the Hare. The former has a covering of coarse white hair, which comes on before winter, and falls off the ensuing spring. He is about half the size of a large European hare, and twice as large as the other kind. The latter burrows in the ground, like a

rabbit. They are both found in the same tract of country, but have not been known to associate. The former is found in the northern states, and appears to be the same as the hare of the northern part of Europe; the latter is found in all the states, and is probably a species peculiar to America.

Racoon. The Racoon, in the form and size of his body, resembles the fox; his legs are larger and shorter. His toes are long, and armed with sharp claws. His body is grey; his tail annulated with alternate rings of black and brown. In his manners he resembles the squirrel; like him he lives on trees, feeds on Indian corn, acorns, &c. and serves himself with his fore paws. In the northern states he is said to betake himself to a hollow tree, or to some hole, and lie torpid during the winter. His flesh is good meat, and his fur is valued by the hatters. He is found in all the climates in the temperate zone in North-America.

The Fox Squirrel. Of this animal there are several varieties, black, red and grey. It is nearly twice as large as the common grey squirrel.—Found in the southern states, and is peculiar to this continent.

The Grey Squirrel of America does not agree exactly with that of Europe, but is generally considered as of the same species. Its name indicates its general colour; but some are black; and others black on the back, and grey on the sides. They make a nest of moss in a hollow tree, and here they deposite their provision of nuts and acorns; this is the place of their residence during the winter, and here they bring forth their young. Their summer house, which is built of sticks and leaves, is placed near the top of a tree. They sometimes migrate in considerable numbers. If in their course they meet with a river, each of them takes a shingle, piece of bark, or the like, and carries it to the water; thus equipped they embark, and erect their tales to the gentle breeze, which soon wafts them over in safety; but a sudden flaw of wind sometimes produces a destructive shipwreck. The greater part of the males of this species are found castrated.

A Grey Squirrel is found in Virginia, nearly twice as large as this. Whether it be the same, or a different species, is uncertain.

The Red Squirrel is less than the grey squirrel. It has a red list along its back; grey on its sides, and white under the belly. It differs in some respects from the common European squirrel; but M. de Buffon considers it as the same species. Its food is the same as that of the grey squirrel, except that it sometimes feeds on the seeds of the pine and other evergreens; hence it is sometimes called the pine squirrel, and is found further to the northward than the grey squirrel. It spends part of its time on trees in quest of food; but considers its hole, under some rock or log, as its home.

The Striped Squirrel is still less than the last mentioned. Its colour is red. It has a narrow stripe of black along its back; at the distance of about half an inch, on each side, is a stripe of white, bordered with very narrow stripes of black. Its belly is white. In the males, the colours are brighter and better defined than in the females. It is sometimes called a mouse squirrel, and ground squirrel,

from its forming a burrow in loose ground. Linnæus confounds it with a striped mouse squirrel, found in the north of Asia; but that animal is represented as in some measure resembling the mouse; whereas ours is a genuine squirrel. In summer it feeds on apples, peaches, and various kinds of fruit and seeds; and for its winter store lays up nuts, acorns and grain. It sometimes ascends trees in quest of food, but always descends on the appearance of danger; nor does it feel secure but in its hole, a stone wall, or some covert place.—Found in the northern and middle states.

Flying Squirrel. This is the least and most singular of the class of squirrels. It is of a reddish grey on the body, and white under the belly. A duplicature of the skin connects the fore and hinder legs together; by extending this membrane it is able to leap much farther, and to alight with more safety than other squirrels. Its tail, likewise, which is flat, serves so direct and assist its course. When it undertakes to fly from one tree to another, at some rods distance, it mounts to a sufficient height, and then darts in a right line to its object, forming in its descent an angle with the horizon of about 45°. Its eyes are large and prominent; and it appears not to see well when the sun shines; by day therefore it generally lies concealed; but in the evening is very brisk and lively. It lives in the holes of trees, and feeds on seeds, nuts and grain.—Is found in all the states, and in the north of Europe.

Field Mouse. The colour of this animal is a reddish brown on the body, and a dirty white under the belly. Compared with the house mouse, his body is somewhat longer, and considerable larger. His tail is larger and shorter. He lives in fields among the grass, and appears quite inoffensive.

Ground Mouse. This animal is larger than the field mouse, but similar in form, excepting that the nose is more blunt. His colour nearly resembles a slate on the body, lighter under the belly. They form burrows under the ground, and often destroy young fruit trees in the winter by eating their bark; in fields and meadows, it feeds on the roots of grass, sometimes leaving a groove in the sward, which appears as if it had been cut out with a gouge. In woods they are said to feed on acorns, and to lay up a large store of them in their burrows.

Bat. The bat very much resembles the field mouse in form and size; but is so enormously extended, that being connected together by a thin membrane they furnish the animal with wings. They frequent the cavities of old buildings, from whence they issue in the twilight, and feed, on the wing, upon the insects which are then to be found flying. In the day time they keep themselves concealed, and become torpid during the winter.—Common to North-America and Europe.

Wood Rat. "This is a very curious animal; not half the size of the domestick rat; of a dark brown or black colour; their tails slender and short in proportion, and covered thinly with short hair. They are singular with respect to their ingenuity and great labour in constructing their habitations, which are conical pyramids, about 3 or 4 feet high, constructed with dry branches, which they collect

with great labour and perseverance, and pile up without any apparent order; yet they are so interwoven with one another, that it would take a bear or wild cat some time to pull one of these castles to pieces, and allow the animals sufficient time to retreat with their young.

"There is likewise a ground rat, twice as large as the common rat, which burrows in the ground." [*Bartram's Travels.*]

American Rat. This animal has a long, naked and scaly tail; the head is long shaped, with a narrow pointed nose, the upper jaw being much larger than the lower; the ears are large and naked. Its colour is of a deep, brown inclining to ash on the belly; and the fur is coarse and harsh. It is probably this species which is said (Kalm's Trav. II. 48) to live among the stones and clefts of rocks, in the blue mountains of Virginia, at a distance from the peopled part of the country, which comes out only at night and makes a terrible noise. [*Encyc. Brit.*]

Shrew Mouse. This is the smallest of quadrupeds, and holds nearly the same place among them as the humming bird does among the feathered race. Some of the European shrew mice, are three inches long: we have seen but two or three of the American, and those dried; but should not judge that those ever exceeded 2 inches. Their head, which constitutes about one third of their whole length, has some resemblance to that of a mole; the ears are wanting; their eyes scarcely visible; the nose very long, pointed and furnished with long hairs. In other respects they resemble the common mouse. They live in woods, and are supposed to feed on grain and insects.—Found in New-England.

Mole. The purple mole is found in Virginia; the black mole in New-England, living in and about the water: They differ from one another, and both from the European.

The Water Rat is about the size of the common rat; brown on the back, and white under the belly; feeds on aquatick animals.

Beaver. The Beaver is an amphibious animal, which cannot live for any length of time in the water; and can exist without it, provided he has the convenience of sometimes bathing himself. The largest beavers, formerly, were four feet in length, and weighed 50 or 60 pounds. At present they are not more than three feet in length, and may weigh from 25 to 30 pounds. The head of this animal is large, and his ears short and round. Their fore teeth are prominent, long, broad, strong and grooved or hollowed like a gouge. Their fore legs are short, with toes separate; their hinder legs are long, with toes webbed. The tail is large, broad and scaly, resembling the body of a fish. Their colour is generally a dark brown, but varies according to the climate they inhabit. Their hair is long and coarse; the fur very thick, fine and highly valued. The castor used in medicine is found in sacs formed behind the kidneys.

Their houses are always situated in the water; sometimes they make use of a natural pond, but generally they choose to form one by building a dam across some brook or rivulet. For this purpose they select a number of saplings, of soft wood, generally of less

than 6 inches diameter, but sometimes of 16 or 18 inches; these they fell, and divide into proper lengths, and place them in the water, so that the length of the sticks make the width of the dam. These sticks they lay in mud or clay, their tails serving them for trowels, as their teeth did for axes. These dams are six or eight feet thick at bottom; sloping on the side opposed to the stream; and are about a quarter as broad at top as at bottom. Near the top of the dam they leave one or more waste ways, or sliding places to carry off the surplus water.

The formation of their cabins is no less remarkable. They consist of two stories, one under, the other above water. They are shaped like the oval bee-hive; and of a size proportioned to the number of inhabitants. The walls of the lower apartment are two or three feet thick, formed like their dams; those of the upper story are thinner, and the whole on the inside, plastered with mud. Each family constructs and inhabits its own cabin. The upper apartments are curiously strewed with leaves, and rendered neat, clean and comfortable. The winter never surprizes these animals before their business is completed; for their houses are generally finished by the last of September, and their stock of provisions laid in, which consists of small pieces of wood deposited in the lower apartments. Before a storm, all hands are employed in repairing or strengthening their dams. They retain this industrious habit even after they are domesticated. In summer they roam abroad and feed on leaves, twigs, and food of that kind. These beavers are considered as the same species as those in Europe, but are vastly superior to them in every respect.

There is likewise a race of Beavers, called *Terriers*, who dig holes and live a solitary unsocial life. These are probably savages, who have never formed themselves into societies, and consequently have not made those improvements, which are to be acquired only in a social state.—Found in all the states.

The Musquash, or Musk Rat, is about 15 inches in length, and a foot in circumference. His tail is nearly a foot long; his hair very short; the colour on his back dark; on his sides generally reddish; his head and tail very much resemble those of a rat. This animal is furnished with glands, which separate a substance that has the smell of musk. In his mode of living, he is a distant imitator of the beaver; builds a rude cabin in shallow water, and feeds on vegetables.—Found in the northern and middle states.

The Morse, or Sea-Cow, more properly called the Sea Elephant, has two large ivory tusks, which shoot from the upper jaw: Its head also is formed like that of the elephant, and would entirely resemble it in that part, if it had a trunk; but the morse is deprived of that instrument, which serves the elephant in place of an arm and hand, and has real arms. These members, like those of the seal, are shut up within the skin, so that nothing appears outwardly but its hands and feet. Its body is long and tapering, thickest towards the neck; the toes and the hands, or feet, are covered with a membrane, and terminated by short and sharp-pointed claws. Excepting the two great tusks, and the cutting teeth, the morse perfectly resembles the

seal; it is only much larger and stronger, the morse being commonly from twelve to sixteen feet in length, and eight or nine in circumference; whereas the largest seals are no more than seven or eight feet long. The morses and seals frequent the same places. They have the same habits in every respect, except that there are fewer varieties of the morse than of the seal; they are likewise more attached to one particular climate, and are rarely found, except in the northern seas.

The SEAL, of which there are several species, is an amphibious animal, which lives the greater part of the time in the sea, and feeds on marine plants. The morse and seal formerly frequented our northern shores; but at present have nearly forsaken them.

MANATI. This animal forms the connecting link between beasts and fishes. It cannot be called a quadruped, nor can it entirely be termed a fish; it partakes of the nature of the fish by its two feet or hands; but the hinder legs, which are almost wholly concealed in the bodies of the seal and morse, are entirely wanting in the manati. Instead of two short feet, and a small narrow tale, which is placed in a horizontal direction in the morse, the manati has only a thick tale, spread out broad like a fan. It is a very clumsy mis-shapen animal, with a head thicker than that of an ox; eyes small; and the two feet are placed near the head, for the purpose of swimming. It is of sufficient size to form a load for two oxen. Its flesh, which is more like beef than fish, is said to be excellent for eating. They are about 15 feet long, and six broad. As this animal has only fore feet, it has obtained the name of *Manati*, i. e, "an animal with both hands." The female has breasts placed forward like those of a woman, and she generally brings forth two young ones at a time, which she suckles. It is not properly amphibious; it only raises its head out of the water to feed on the herbage by the sea side. This animal is very common in South-America, and some have been found in the rivers which run from Georgia into the Gulf of Mexico.

SAPAJOU. SAGOIN. There are various species of animals said to inhabit the country on the lower part of the Missisippi, called Sapajous and Sagoins. The former are capable of suspending themselves by their tails: the latter are not. They have a general resemblance to monkies; but are not sufficiently known, to be particularly described.

Birds.] Several catalogues of the birds in the southern and middle states, have been published by different authors; and one, of those in New Hampshire, by Dr. Belknap; but no general catalogue of the birds in the American States has yet appeared. The following catalogue, which claims to be the most full and complete of any yet published, though far from perfection, has been carefully selected from Bartram's travels, Jefferson's Notes on Virginia, Belknap's History of New-Hampshire, and a Manuscript furnished by Dr. Cutler. Bartram's catalogue, as far as it extends, appears to be the most accurate and complete, and his mode of arrangement the most natural and intelligible: I have therefore adopted it, and inserted his notes and references.

*Popular Names.**	*Bartram's Designation.*
The Owl.	Strix.
† Great White Owl	Strix arcticus, corpore toto niveo
¶ Great Horned Owl	Strix pythaules, corpore rufo.
† Great Horned White Owl	Strix maximus, corpore niveo.
§ Horned Owl	Strix bubo ? Peck.
¶ Whooting Owl	Strix acclamator, corpore grifeo.
† Sharp Winged or Speckled Owl	Strix perigrinator, corpore versicolore. Strix aluco. Cutler. Belknap.
¶ Little Screech Owl	Strix asio, corpore ferruginio.
§ Barn Owl	Strix passeri. Cutler. Belknap.
The Vulture.	Vultur.
‖ Turkey Buzzard	Vultur aura.
‖ White Tailed Vulture	Vultur sacra.
‖ Black Vulture, or Carrion Crow	Vultur atratus.
Eagle and Hawk.	Falco.
¶ Great Grey Eagle	Falco regalis.
¶ Bald Eagle	Falco leucocephalus
* Fishing Eagle	Falco piscatorius.
¶ Great Eagle Hawk	Falco Aquilinus, cauda ferruginio.
¶ Hen Hawk	Falco gillinarius.
¶ Chicken Hawk	Falco pularius.
* Pigeon Hawk	Falco columbarius.
¶ Black Hawk	Falco niger.
* Marsh Hawk	Falco ranivorous.
* Sparrow Hawk, or least Hawk	Falco sparvenius.
§ Brown Eagle	Falco fulvus. Belknap.
§ Large Brown Hawk	Falco hudsonius ? Belknap.
§ Pigeon Hawk	Falco subbuteo. Peck.
§ Fish Hawk	Falco haliætus. Peck.
§ Bird Hawk	Lanius canadensis. Belk. Cutl.

* The birds to whose names, in this catalogue, these marks [* † ‡ ‖ ¶] are prefixed are land birds, which according to Bartram, are seen in Pensylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North and South-Carolina, Georgia and Florida, from the sea coast westward to the Appalachian mountains, viz.

* These arrive in Pensylvania in the spring, from the south; and after building their nests and rearing their young, return southward in autumn.

† These arrive in Pensylvania in autumn, from the north, where some of them continue during the winter; others continue their journey as far south as Florida. They return northward in the spring, probably to breed and rear their young.

‡ These arrive, in the spring, in Carolina and Florida, from the south; breed and rear their young, and return again to the south at the approach of winter. These never migrate so far north as Pensylvania.

‖ These are natives of Carolina, Georgia and Florida; where they breed and continue the year round.

¶ These breed and continue the year round in Pensylvania.

§ These are peculiar to New-England, and almost all the two first classes and some of the third are found in the Eastern States.

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
KITE HAWK.*	MILVUS.
‖ Forked Tail Hawk, or Kite	Falco furcatus.
‖ Sharp Winged Hawk of a pale, sky blue colour, the tip of the wings black	Falco glaucus.
‖ Sharp Winged Hawk, of a dark or dusky blue colour	Falco subcerulius.
‖ Parrot of Carolina, or Parrakeet	Psitticus Caroliniensis.
The CROW kind.	CORVUS.
* The Raven	Corvus carnivorus.
‖ Great Sea side Crow or Rook	Corvus maritimus.
¶ Common Crow	Corvus frugivorus.
§ Royston Crow	Corvus cornix. Cutler.
¶ Blue Jay	Corvus cristatus, pica glandaria.
‖ Little Jay of Florida	Corvus Floridanus, pica glandaria minor.
¶ Purple Jackdaw or Crow-Blackbird	Gracula quiscula.
* Lesser Purple Jackdaw	Gracula purpurea.
* Cuckoo of Carolina	Cuculus Caroliniensis.
Whet Saw	Cuculus———Carver.
WOOD-PECKERS.	PICUS.
‖ Greatest Crested Woodpecker, having a white back	Picus principalis.
* Great Red Crested Black Woodpecker	Picus pilcatus.
* Red Headed Woodpecker	Picus erythrocephalus.
* Gold Winged Woodpecker	Picus auratus.
¶ Red Bellied Woodpecker	Picus Carolinus.
¶ Least Spotted Woodpecker	Picus pubescens.
¶ Hairy, Speckled and Crested Woodpecker	Picus villosus.
¶ Yellow Bellied Woodpecker	Picus varius.
§ Swallow Woodpecker	Picus hirundinaceus. Cutler.
§ Speckled Woodpecker	Picus maculosus. Cutler.
¶ Nuthatch	Sitta capitee nigro. Catesby.
† Small Nuthatch	Sitta capitee fusco. Catesby.
† Little brown variegated Creeper	Certhia rufa.
* Pine Creeper	Certhia pinus.
* Blue and White pied Creeper	Certhia picta.
* Great Crested King Fisher	Alcedo alcyon.
* Humming Bird	Trochilus colubris.
* Little Grey Butcher Bird of Pennsylvania	Lanius griseus.
* Little Black Capped Butcher	Lanius garrulus.
* King Bird	Lanius tyrannus.

* Kite hawks are characterized by having long sharp-pointed wings; being of swift flight; sailing without clapping their wings; having long, light bodies, and feeding out of their claws, on the wing.

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
* Pewit, or Black Cap Fly Catcher	Muscicapa nunciola.
* Great Crested, Yellow Bellied Fly Catcher	Muscicapa cristata.
* Lesser Pewit, or Brown and Greenish Fly Catcher	Muscicapa rapax.
† Little Olive coloured Fly Catcher	Muscicapa subviridis.
* Little Domestick Fly Catcher, or Green Wren	Muscicapa cantacrix.
* Red Eyed Fly Catcher	Muscicapa sylvicola.
* Turtle Dove of Carolina	Columba Caroliniensis.
‖ Ground Dove	Columba passerina.
† Wild Pigeon	Columba migratoria.
* Great Meadow Lark	Alauda magna.
† Sky Lark	Alauda campestris, gutture flavo.
† Little Brown Lark	Alauda migratoria, corpore toto ferruginio.
Marsh Black Bird, or Red Winged Black Bird	Sturnus niger alis superene rubentibus. Catesby.
¶ Robin Red Breast. Field Fare	Turdus migratorius.*
* Fox coloured Thrush	Turdus rufus.
* Mocking Bird	Turdus Polyglottus.
* Wood Thrush	Turdus Melodes.
* Least Golden Crown Thrush	Turdus minimus, vertice aurio.
§ Cross Bill	Loxia curvi rostra? Belknap.
§ Cherry Bird	Ampelis garrulus. Cutler.
* Baltimore Bird, or Hang Nest	Oriolus Baltimore.
* Goldfinch or Icterus Minor	Oriolus spurius.
* Sand Hill Red Bird of Carolina	Merula flammula.
* Summer Red Bird	Merula Marilandica.
* Yellow breasted Chat	Garrulus australis.
* Cat Bird or Chicken Bird	Lucar lividus, apice nigra Muscicapa vertice nigro. Cates.
¶ Crown Bird or Cedar Bird	Ampelis garrulus.

GRANIVOROUS TRIBES.

¶ Wild Turkey	Meleagris Americanus. Gallopavo sylvestris. Catesby.
¶ Pheasant of Pennsylvania, or Partridge of New-England	Tetrao tympanus.
¶ Mountain Cock or Grous Ptarmigan. *(Mitchill.)*	Tetrao lagopus.
¶ Quail or Partridge	Tetrao minor, s. coturnix.
¶ Red Bird, Virginia Nightingale	Loxia cardinalis.
† Cross Beak	Loxia restro forsicato.
* Blue Cross Beak	Loxia cærulea.

* *Turdus migratorius* is not our common Robin Red-Breast or Whistling Robin, which is a bird peculiar to this country. [*Dr. Waterhouse.*]

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
* Rice Bird.* Boblincoln	Emberiza oryzivora.
‡ Blue or Slate coloured Rice Bird	Emberiza livida.
* Pied Rice Bird*	Emberiza varia.
‡ Painted Finch, or Nonpareil	Linaria ciris.
§ Red Linnet	Tanagra rubra.
* Blue Linnet	Linaria cyanea.
¶ Goldfinch. Yellow Bird *(Catl.)* or Lettuce Bird	Carduelus Americanus. Fringilla tristis. Linn.
† Lesser Goldfinch	Carduelus pinus.
† Least Finch	Carduelus pusilus.
* Towhe Bird, Pewee, Cheewech	Fringilla erythrophthalma. Passer nigri socculis rubris. Cat.
† Purple Finch	Fringilla purpurea.
§ Spring Bird	Fringilla. Cutler.
† Hemp Bird	Fringilla canabina.
§ Winter Sparrow	Fringilla grisea. Cutler.
† Red, Fox coloured, Ground or Hedge Sparrow	Fringilla rufa.
† Large, brown, White Throated Sparrow	Fringilla fusca.
* Little House Sparrow, or Chipping Bird	Passer domesticus.
* Reed Sparrow	Passer palustris.
* Little Field Sparrow	Passer agrestis.
† Snow Bird	Passer nivalis.
* May Bird	Calandra pratensis.
* Red winged Starkling, or Corn Thief	Sturnus predatorius.
* Cowpen Bird	Sturnus stercorarius. Passer fuscus. Catesby.
* Blue Bird	Motacilla sialis. Rubicula Americana cærulea. Catesby.
* Water Wagtail	Motacilla fluviatilis.
* House Wren	Motacilla domestica. (regulus rufus.)
¶* Marsh Wren	Motacilla palustris, regulus minor
* Great Wren of Carolina—Body dark brown, throat and breast pale clay colour	Motacilla Caroliniana. (regulus magnus.)
§ Grape Bird	Motacilla icterocephala. Cutler.
* Little Bluish Grey Wren	Regulus griseus.
† Golden Crown Wren	Regulus cristatus.
† Ruby Crown Wren *(Edwards.)*	Regulus cristatus, Alter vertice rubini coloris.

* The rice bird and pied rice bird are generally supposed to be male and female of the same species; the pied rice bird the male, and the other the female. Called in New-England Boblincoln, Conquedle; and by some, Old England Black bird.

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
* Olive coloured, Yellow Throated Wren	Regulus peregrinus, gutture flavo
* Red Start	Ruticilla Americana.
* Yellow hooded Titmouse	Luscinia, s. philomela Americana.
* Bluish Grey crested Titmouse	Parus cristatus.
¶ Black Cap Titmouse	Parus Europeus.
* Summer Yellow Bird	Parus luteus.
* Yellow Rump	Parus cedrus, europygio flavo.
§ Tom Teet	Parus atricapillus. Cutler.
* Various coloured Little Finch Creeper	Parus varius.
* Little chocolate breast Titmouse	Parus peregrinus.
* Yellow Red Pole	Parus aureus, vertice rubro.
* Green Black Throated Fly Catcher	Parus viridis, gutture nigro.
* Golden Winged Fly Catcher	Parus alis aureis.
* Blue Winged Yellow Bird	Parus aureus alis ceruleis.
* Yellow Throated Creeper	Parus griccus gutture luteo.
* House Swallow, or Chimney Swallow	Hirundo pelasgia, cauda aculeata.
* Great Purple Martin	Hirundo purpurea.
* Bank Martin or Swallow	Hirundo riparia, vertice purpurea.
§ White Bellied Swallow	Hirundo——
§ Barn Swallow	Hirundo subis. Cutler.
‡ Great Bat, or Chuckwill's widow, or Goat Sucker	Caprimulgus lucifugus.
* Whip-poor-will*	Caprimulgus minor Americanus. Catesby. Caprimulgus Europeus. Cutler.
* Night Hawk	Caprimulgus Americanus. Cutler.

Amphibious or Aquatick Birds, or such as obtain their food from, and reside in the water.

The Crane.	Grus.
‖ Great Whooping Crane	Grus clamator, vertice papilloso. corpore niveo, remigibus nigris.
‡ Great Savannah Crane.	Grus pratensis, corpore cinereo vertice papilloso.

The Heron.	Ardea.
¶ Great Bluish Grey crested Heron	Ardea Herodias.
* Great White River Heron	Ardea immaculata.
§ Crane	Ardea camadensis. Cutler.
* Little White Heron	Ardea alba minor.
§ Stork	Ardea ciconia. Cutler.
‡ Little Crested Purple or Blue Heron	Ardea purpurea cristata.
* Grey White Crested Heron	Ardea varra cristata.

* Bartram considers the whip-poor-will and the night-hawk as the same bird.

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
‡ Speckled Crested Heron, or Crab Catcher	Ardea maculata cristata
* Marsh bittern, or Indian Hen	Ardea migitans. Ardea stellaris Americana. Cat.
* Quaw Bird or Frog Catcher	Ardea clamator, corpore sub ceruleo.
‡ Little Brownish spotted Bittern	Ardea subsusca stellata.
‡ Crested Blue Bittern, called Poor Job	Ardea violacca.
* Green Bittern. Poke. Skouk	Ardea virescens.
* Lesser Green Bittern	Ardea virescens minor.
* Least Brown and Striped Bittern	Ardea parva.
* Spoon Bill; seen as far north as the river Alatamaha	Platalea ajaja
The Wood Pelican.	Tantalus.
‡ Wood Pelican	Tantalus loculator.
‡ White Curlew	Tantalus alber.
‡ Dusky and White Curlew	Tantalus fuscus.
‖ Crying Bird, beautifully Speckled	Tantalus pictus, (Ephouskyka. Indian.)
‖ Grannet, perhaps little different from the Ibis	Tantalus Ichthyophagus.
‖ White Godwit	Numenius, alba varia.
¶ Great red breasted Godwit	Numenius pectore rufo.
¶ The greater Godwit	Numenius Americana.
¶ Red Shark, or pool Stripe	Numenius fluvialis.
¶ Great sea-coast Curlew	Numenius magnus rufus.
* Lesser field Curlew	Numenius minor campestris.
¶ Sea side lesser Curlew	Numenius cinereus.
* Great red Woodcock	Scolaphax Americana rufa.
Wood Snipe	Scolaphax fedoa. Cutler.
* Meadow Snipe	Scolaphax minor arvensis.
* Red coot footed Tring	Tringa rufa.
* White throated, coot footed Tring	Tringa cinerea, gutture albo.
* Black cap, coot footed Tring	Tringa vertice nigro.
¶ Spotted Tring. Rock bird	Tringa maculata.
¶ Little pond Snipe	Tringa griseus.
¶ Little brown pool Snipe	Tringa fusca.
¶ Little Trings of the sea shore. Sand Birds	Tringa parva
Ox Eye	Tringa sulicaria? Cutler.
§ Humility	Tringa interpres? Cutler.
* Turnstone or Dotrill	Morinella Americana.
† Wild Swan	Cygnus ferus.
† Canadian Goose	Anser Canadensis.
† Blue Winged Goose	Anser aleis cæruleis.
† Laughing Goose	Anser fuscus maculatus.

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
† White Brant Goose	Anser branta, corpore albore, remigibus nigris.
† Great parti-coloured Brant or Grey Goose	Anser branta, grisea maculata
† Great Wild Duck. Duck and Mallard	Anas fera torquata, major, caput et collum veridi splendentis, dorsum griseo fuscum, pectore rufescente, speculum violacrum.
† Great Black Duck	Anas nigra maxima.
† Bull Neck or Buffaloe Head Quindar	Anas bucephala.
† Blue Bill	Anas subcerulea.
† Black White Faced Duck	Anas leucocephala.
§ Wood Duck	Anas arborea.
† Sprigtail Duck	Anas caudacuta.
† Little Brown and White Duck	Anas rustica.
† Various coloured Duck, his breast and neck as though ornamented with chains of beads	Anas principalis, maculata.
† Little Black and White Duck called Butter Back	Anas minor picta.
Sea Duck	Anas mollissima. Cutler.
Sea Pigeon	Anas histrionica? Cutler.
§ Old Wife	Anas hyemalis. Peck. Anas strepera? Cutler.
† Blue Winged Shoveller	Anas Americanus lato rostro, Catesby.
§ Dipper	Anas albeola. Cutler.
TEAL.	QUERQUIDULÆ.
* Summer Duck	Anas sponsa.
† Blue Winged Teal	Anas discors.
† Least Green Winged Teal	Anas migratoria.
* Whistling Duck	Anas fistulosa.
† Great Fishing Duck	Mergus major pectore rufo.
† Round crested Duck	Mergus cucultatus.
* Eel Crow	Colymbus Migratorius.
‖ Great Black Cormorant of Florida, having a red beak	Colymbus Floridanus.
‖ Snake Bird of Florida	Colymbus colubrinus, cauda elongata.
¶ Great Black and White Pied Diver, or Loon	Colymbus musicus.
† Large Spotted Loon, or Great Speckled Diver	Colymbus Glacialis. Peck. Colymbus articus.
¶ Little eared Brown Dobchick	Colymbus auritus et cornutus.
¶ Little crested Brown Dobchick	Colymbus minor fuscus.
§ Dobchick or Notail	Colymbus podiceps. Peck.
§ Cream coloured Sheldrake	Mergus merganser? Cutler.
§ Red Bellied Sheldrake	Mergus serrator? Cutler.
§ Pied Sheldrake	Mergus castor? Cutler.

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
§ Penguin	Alea impennis. Cutler.
§ Water Hen	Alea arctica ? Cutler.
§ Murr	Alea torda. Peck.
§ Petteril	Procellaria pelagica. Peck.
‡ Tropick Bird	Phæton ætherius.
¶ Great White Gull	Larus alber.
¶ Great Grey Gull	Larus griseus.
¶ Little White River Gull	Larus alba minor.
§ Mackarel Gull	Larus ridibundus. Cutler.
§ Fishing Gull	Sterna minuta. Cutler.
‡ Sea Swallow or Noddy	Sterna stolida.
§ Sea Sucker	Petromyzon marinus. Peck.
‖ Pintado Bird	Petrella pintado.
§ Thornback	Raja fullonica ? Peck.
¶ Shear Water or Razor Bill	Rynchops niger.
‡ Frigate or Man of War Bird	Pelicanus aquilus.
‡ Booby	Pelicanus sula.
§ Shag	Pelicanus graculus. Cutler.
Pelican of the Missisippi, whose pouch holds 2 or 3 quarts	Pelicanus——
‖ American Sea Pelican	Onocratalus Americanus.
The Plover Kind.	Charadrius.
* Kildee or Chattering Plover	Charadrius vociferus.
* Great Spotted Plover	Charadrius maculatus.
* Little sea side Ring Necked Plover	Charadrius minor.
* Will Willet or Oyster Catcher	Hematopus ostrealegus.
‖ Great Blue or slate coloured Coot	Fulica Floridana.
§ White Head Coot	Anas spectabilis. Cutler.
§ Brown Coot	Anas fusca. Cutler.
* Soree. Brown Rail. Widgeon	Rallus Virginianus.
‡ Little Dark Blue Water Rail	Rallus aquaticus minor.
* Greater Brown Rail	Rallus rufus.
‖ Blue or slate coloured Water Rail of Florida	Rallus major subceruleus.
§ Peep	Rallus Carolinus. Cutler.
* Flamingo; seen about the point of Florida; rarely as far North as St. Augustine.	Phœnicopterus ruber.

Besides these, the following have not been described or classed, unless they are contained, under different names, in the above catalogue.

Sheldrach or Canvas Back	Mow Bird
Ball Coot	Blue Peter
Water Witch	Water Wagtail
Water Pheasant	Wakon Bird.

The birds of America, says Catesby, generally exceed those of Europe in the beauty of their plumage, but are much inferior to them in the melody of their notes.

The middle states, including Virginia, appear to be the climates, in North-America, where the greatest number and variety of birds of passage celebrate their nuptials and rear their offspring, with which they annually return to more southern regions. Most of our birds are birds of passage from the southward. The eagle, the pheasant, grous and partridge of Pennsylvania, several species of woodpeckers, the crow, blue jay, robin, marsh wren, several species of sparrows or snow birds, and the swallow, are perhaps nearly all the land birds that continue the year round to the northward of Virginia.

Very few tribes of birds build or rear their young in the south or maritime parts of Virginia, in Carolina, Georgia and Florida; yet all those numerous tribes, particularly of the soft billed kind, which breed in Pennsylvania, pass, in the spring season, through these regions in a few weeks time, making but very short stages by the way; and again, but few of them winter there on their return southwardly.

It is not known how far to the south they continue their route during their absence from the northern and middle states.

"The SWAN *(Cygnus ferus)* is the largest of the aquatick tribe of birds which is seen in this country. One of them has been known to weigh 36lb. and to be 6 feet in length, from the bill to the feet, when stretched. It makes a noise resembling that of a trumpet, both when in the water and on the wing." [*Belknap.*]

The CANADIAN GOOSE *(Anser canadensis)* is a bird of passage, and gregarious. The offspring of the Canadian and common goose are mongrels, and reckoned more valuable than either of them singly, but do not propagate.

The PTARMIGAN *(Tetrao lagopus)* ordinarily inhabits the colder climates about Hudson's Bay, but is sometimes driven, through want of food, to the more southern latitudes. In the winter of 1788 these birds were taken plentifully about Quebeck. Whenever the winter of the Arctick region sets in with rain, so as to cover the branches and leaves of trees with a glaze of ice, they are deprived of their food, and obliged to fly to the south, to a milder climate, where it can be procured. Hence they frequently visit the United States. Their feathers are mostly white, covered with down quite to the nails, and their flesh black, and of an exquisite relish.

Probably this is a different bird from Bartram's Mountain Cock or Grous, though both have the same Linnæan name.

The QUAIL or PARTRIDGE *(Tetrao minor, s. coturnix.)* This bird is the *Quail* of New-England, and the *Partridge* of the southern states; but is properly neither. It is a bird peculiar to America. The Partridge of New-England *(Tetrao tympanus)* is the *Pheasant* of Pennsylvania, but is miscalled in both places. It is a species of the Grous. Neither the Pheasant, Partridge or Quail, are found in America.

CUCKOO *(Cuculus Caroliniensis.)* These birds are said not to pair, like the rest of the feathered tribes. When the female appears on the wing, she is often attended by two or three males. Unlike all

other birds, she does not build a nest of her own, but takes the opportunity, while the Hedge Sparrow (probably they make use of other nests) is laying her eggs, to deposite her egg among the rest, leaving the future care of it entirely to the hedge sparrow. The cuckoo's egg requires no longer incubation than her own. When the hedge sparrow has sat her usual time, and disengaged the young cuckoo and some of her own offspring from their shells, the young cuckoo, astonishing as it may seem, immediately sets about clearing the nest of the young sparrows, and the remaining unhatched eggs, and with surprising expertness soon accomplishes the business, and remains sole possessor of the nest, and the only object of the sparrow's future care.*

The WAKON BIRD, which probably is of the same species with the Bird of Paradise, receives its name from the idea the Indians have of its superior excellence; the Wakon Bird being, in their language, the bird of the Great Spirit. It is nearly the size of a swallow, of a brown colour, shaded about the neck with a bright green. The wings are of a darker brown than the body. Its tail is composed of four or five feathers, which are three times as long as its body, and which are beautifully shaded with green and purple. It carries this fine length of plumage in the same manner as the peacock does his, but it is not known whether, like him, it ever raises it to an erect position.

The WHETSAW is of the cuckoo kind, being, like that, a solitary bird, and scarcely ever seen. In the summer months it is heard in the groves, where it makes a noise like the filing of a saw, from which circumstance it has received its name. [*Carver.*]

The HUMMING BIRD (*Trochilus colubris*) is the smallest of all the feathered inhabitants of the air. Its plumage surpasses description. On its head is a small tuft of jetty black; its breast is red; its belly white; its back, wings and tail of the finest pale green; small specks of gold are scattered over it with inexpressible grace; and to crown the whole, an almost imperceptible down softens the several colours, and produces the most pleasing shades. They are of two kinds, one has a curved, the other a straight bill.

Amphibious Reptiles.] Among these are the mud tortoise or turtle (Testudo denticulata.) Speckled land tortoise (Testudo carolina.) Great soft shelled tortoise of Florida (Testudo naso cylindracea elongato, truncato. Bartram.) When full grown it weighs from 30 to 40 pounds, (some say 70 pounds) extremely fat and delicious food. Great land tortoise, called gopher; its upper shell is about 18 inches long, and from 10 to 12 broad.—Found south of Savannah river.

Two species of fresh water tortoises inhabit the tide water rivers in the southern states; one is large, weighing from ten to twelve pounds, the back shell nearly of an oval form; the other species small; but both are esteemed delicious food. [illegible] tortoises of the northern states are of several species, but have [illegible] scientifically designated.

* American Museum, for Jan. 1792, p. 35. Ext[illegible] the Phil. Transactions of the Royal Society, London. Whether th[illegible] *viniensis* be the same bird as is here referred to, is doubted by some.

Of the frog kind *(Ranæ)* are many species. The toad *(Rana bufo ?)* several species—the red, brown and black. The former are the largest; the latter the smallest. Pond frog *(Rana ocellata.)* Green fountain frog *(Rana esculanta.)* Tree frog *(Rana muculata.)* Bull frog *(Rana boans.)* Besides these are the dusky brown spotted frog of Carolina, 8 or 9 inches long from the nose to the extremity of the toes; their voice resembles the grunting of a swine. The bell frog, so called because their voice is fancied to be exactly like that of a loud cow bell. A beautiful green frog, whose noise is like the barking of little dogs or the yelping of puppies. A less green frog, whose notes resemble those of young chickens. Little grey speckled frog, which makes a noise like the striking of two pebbles together under the surface of the water. There is yet an extremely diminutive species of frogs, called by some Savannah crickets, whose notes are not unlike the chattering of young birds or crickets. —They are found in great multitudes, after plentiful rains, in all the states.

Of lizards *(Lacertæ)* we have also many species. The alligator, or American crocodile, is a very large, ugly, terrible creature, of prodigious strength, activity and swiftness in the water. They are from 12 to 23 feet in length; their bodies are as large as that of a horse, and are covered with horny plates or scales, said to be impenetrable to a rifle ball, except about their heads and just behind their fore legs, where they are vulnerable; in shape they resemble the lizard. The head of a full grown alligator is about three feet long, and the mouth opens nearly the same length. The eyes are comparatively small, and the whole head, in the water, appears at a distance like a piece of rotten, floating wood. The upper jaw only, moves, and this they raise so as to form a right angle with the lower one. They open their mouths while they lie basking in the sun, on the banks of rivers and creeks, and when filled with flies, musketoes and other insects, they suddenly let fall their upper jaw with surprising noise, and thus secure their prey. They have two large, strong, conical tusks, as white as ivory, which are not covered with any skin or lips, and which give the animal a frightful appearance. In the spring, which is their season for breeding, they make a most hideous and terrifying roar, resembling the sound of distant thunder. The alligator is an oviparous animal; their nests, which are commonly built on the margin of some creek or river at the distance of 15 or 20 yards from the water, are in the form of an obtuse cone, about 4 feet high, and 4 or 5 in diameter at their basis. They are constructed with a sort of mortar, made of a mixture of mud, grass and herbage. First they lay a floor of this composition on which they deposite a layer of eggs; and upon this a stratum [illegible]eir mortar, 7 or 8 inches thick; and then another layer of egg[illegible] this manner, one stratum upon another, nearly to the top of [illegible]. They lay from one to two hundred eggs in a nest. The [illegible]ed, it is supposed, by the heat of the sun, assisted, perhap[illegible]rentation of the vegetable mortar in which they are depos[illegible]nale, it is said, carefully watches her own nest of eggs [illegible]l hatched. She then takes her brood under her care [illegible]n about the shores like as a hen does her chick-

ous, and is equally courageous in defending them in time of danger. When she lies basking upon warm banks with her brood around her, the young ones may be heard whining and barking like young puppies. The old feed on the young alligators, till they get so large as that they cannot make a prey of them; so that happily but few of a brood survive the age of a year. They are fond of the flesh of dogs and hogs, which they devour whenever they have an opportunity. Their principal food is fish. In Carolina and Georgia they retire into their dens, which they form by burrowing far under ground, commencing under water and working upwards, and there remain in a torpid state during the winter. Farther south, in warmer climates, they are more numerous and more fierce and ravenous, and will boldly attack a man. In South-America the carrion vulture is the instrument of Providence to destroy multitudes of young alligators, who would otherwise render the country uninhabitable.

Besides the alligator, we have of this species of amphibious reptiles the brown lizard *(Lacerta punctata.)* Swift *(Lacerta fusciata ?)* Green lizard, or little green cameleon of Carolina, about 6 or 7 inches long; it has a large, red gill under its throat, and, like the cameleon, has the faculty of changing its colour. The striped lizard or scorpion. Blue bellied, squamous lizards, several varieties. Large copper coloured lizard. Swift, slender, blue lizard, with a long slender tail, as brittle as that of the glass snake.—The two last are rarely seen, but are sometimes found about old log buildings in the southern states.

Serpents.] The characters by which serpents are distinguished are these, the belly is furnished with scuta, and the tail has both scuta and scales. Of these reptiles, the following are found in the United States:

Rattle Snake	Crotalus horridus.
Yellow Rattle Snake Small Rattle Snake Bastard Rattle Snake	Crotali species.
Moccasin Snake Grey spotted Moccasin Snake of Carolina	Coluber——
Water Viper, with a sharp thorn tail	Coluber punctatus.
Black Viper	Coluber prester.
Brown Viper	Coluber luridus.
White Bodied Brown Eyed Snake	Coluber atropos.
Black Snake with linear rings	Coluber leberis.
A Snake with 152 scutæ and 135 scutellæ	Coluber dispas.
Bluish Green Snake, with a stretched out triangular snout or Hog-nose Snake	Coluber mycterizans.
Copper Bellied Snake	Coluber erythrogaster.
Black Snake	Coluber constrictor.
White Neck Black Snake	Coluber——

Small Brown Adder	Coluber striatulus.
House Adder	Coluber punctatus.
Water Adder	Coluber——
Brown Snake	Coluber sipedon.
Little Brown Bead Snake	Coluber annulatus.
Coach Whip Snake	Coluber flagellum.
Corn Snake	Coluber fulvius.
Green Snake	Coluber æstivus.
Wampum Snake	Coluber fasciatus.
Ribbon Snake	
Pine, Horn, or Bull Snake, with a horny spear in his tail	
Joint Snake	
Garter Snake	
Striped Snake	Anguis eryx ?
Chicken Snake	Anguis maculata ?
Glass Snake	Anguis ventralis.
Brownish Spotted Snake	Anguis reticulata.
Yellowish White Snake	Anguis lumbricalis.
Hissing Snake	
Ring Snake	
Two headed Snake	Amphisbœna.

The RATTLE SNAKE *(Crotalus horridus)* may be ranked among the largest serpents in America. They are from 4 to upwards of 6 feet in length, and from 4 to 6 inches in diameter. Formerly, it is said, they were much larger. Their rattles consist of several reticulated, crustaceous, or rather horny bags, forming their tails, which, when they move, make a rattling noise, warning people of their approach. It is said they will not attack a person unless previously provoked. When molested or irritated, they erect their rattles, and, by intervals, give the warning alarm. If pursued and overtaken, they instantly throw themselves into the spiral coil; their whole body swells through rage, continually rising and falling like a bellows; their beautiful parti-coloured skin becomes speckled and rough by dilation; their head and neck are flattened; their checks swollen, and their lips constricted, discovering their fatal fangs; their eyes red as burning coals, and their brandishing forked tongues, of the colour of the hottest flame, menaces a horrid death. They never strike unless sure of their mark. They are supposed to have the power of fascination in an eminent degree; and it is generally believed that they charm birds, rabbits, squirrels and other animals, in such a manner, as that they lose the power of resistance, and flutter and move slowly, but reluctantly, towards the yawning jaws of their devourers, and either creep into their mouths, or lie down and suffer themselves to be taken and swallowed. This dreaded reptile is easily killed. One well directed stroke on the head, or across the back, with a stick not larger than a man's thumb, is sufficient to kill the largest; and they are so slow of motion that they cannot make their escape, nor do they attempt it, when attacked. Many different remedies for the bite of a rattle snake have been prescribed and used with different

success; the following, received from good authority, is recommended as a cure for the bite of all venomous snakes. "Bind a ligature tight round the leg or thigh, above the part bitten, so as to interrupt the circulation; then open or scarify the wound with a lancet, knife or flint, and suck the wound or let a friend do it; then rub it with any unctuous matter, either animal or vegetable; or if that cannot be procured, make use of salt. Take care to keep the bowels open and free, by drinking sweet oil and milk or cream. If pure honey be at hand, apply it to the wound after opening and sucking it, in preference to any other thing; and eat plentifully of honey and milk."

The bastard rattle snake is of the nature of the asp or adder of the Eastern continent; in form and colour they resemble the rattle snake; are 8 or 10 inches long; and very spiteful and venomous. Like the rattle snake, they throw themselves into a coil; swell and flatten their bodies; continually darting out their heads, and seem capable of springing beyond their length.—Found in the southern states.

The moccasin snake is from 3 to 5 feet in length, and as thick as a man's leg: When disturbed by an enemy, they throw themselves into a coil, and then gradually raise their upper jaw till it falls back, nearly touching the neck, at the same time vibrating their long purple forked tongue, and directing their crooked poisonous fangs towards their enemy. In this attitude the creature has a most terrifying appearance. It is said, their bite is incurable; but the probability is, that it is not. Like the rattle snake they are slow in their motion, and never bite a person unless provoked.—Found in abundance in the swamps and low grounds in the southern states.

The other moccasin snake is about 5 or 6 feet long, and as thick as a man's arm; of a pale grey, sky-coloured ground, with brown undulatory ringlets. They are said not to be venomous; have no poisonous fangs; are very swift and active, and flee from an enemy.—Found in the southern states, and supposed to be a species of the wampum snake of Pennsylvania, if not the same snake, though larger and deeper coloured.

The black snake is of various lengths from 3 to 6 feet, all over of a shining black; it is not venomous; is useful in destroying rats, and pursues its prey with wonderful agility. It is said that it will destroy the rattle snake by twisting round it and whipping it to death. It has been reported also that they have sometimes twined themselves round the bodies of children, squeezing them till they die.—They are found in all the states.

The coach whip snake is of various and beautiful colours; some parts brown or chocolate, others black, and others white; it is 6 or 7 feet long, and very slender and active; it runs swiftly, and is quite inoffensive; but the Indians, it is said, imagine that it is able to cut a man in two with a jerk of its tail. Like the black snake, it will run upon its tail, with its head and body erect.

The pine or bull snake, called also the horn snake, is the largest of the serpent kind known in North-America, except the rattle snake, and perhaps exceeds him in length. They are pied black and white; are inoffensive with respect to mankind, but devour squirrels, rabbits,

and every other creature they can take, as food. Their tails terminate with a hard horny spur, which they vibrate very quick when disturbed, but they never attempt to strike with it. They have dens in the earth, to which they retreat in times of danger.

The glass snake has a very small head; the upper part of its body is of a colour blended brown and green, most regularly and elegantly spotted with yellow. Its skin is very smooth and shining, with small scales, more closely connected than those of other serpents, and of a different structure. A small blow with a stick will separate the body, not only at the place struck, but at two or three other places, the muscles being articulated in a singular manner, quite through to the vertebra. They appear earlier in the spring than any other serpent, and are numerous in the sandy woods of the Carolinas and Georgia; and they are harmless.

The joint snake, if we may credit Carver's account of it, is a great curiosity. Its skin is as hard as parchment, and as smooth as glass. It is beautifully streaked with black and white. It is so stiff, and has so few joints, and those so unyielding, that it can hardly bend itself into the form of a hoop. When it is struck, it breaks like a pipe-stem; and you may, with a whip, break it from the tail to the bowels into pieces not an inch long, and not produce the least tincture of blood. It is not venomous.

The two-headed snake *(Amphisbæna)* has generally been considered as a monstrous production. I am disposed to believe, however, that it is a distinct species of serpents. I have seen one, and received accounts of three others, found in different parts of the United States. One of these was about 8 inches long, and both heads, as to every outward appearance, were equally perfect, and branching out from the neck at an acute angle. It is said, there are three species of the Amphisbœna in Guiana.

The snakes are not so numerous nor so venomous in the northern as in the southern states. In the latter, however, the inhabitants are furnished with a much greater variety of plants and herbs, which afford immediate relief to persons bitten by these venomous creatures. It is an observation worthy of perpetual and grateful remembrance, that wherever venomous animals are found, the God of nature has kindly provided sufficient antidotes against their poison.

Fishes.] Fishes form the fourth class of animals in the Linnæan system. Mr. Pennant, in his British Zoology, distributes fish into three divisons, comprehending six orders. His divisions are into *Cetaceous*, *Cartilagenous* and *Bony*. We are not sufficiently informed in this part of our natural history, to arrange the following catalogue of our fishes agreeably to Mr. Pennant's judicious divisions.

CETACEOUS FISH.

The Whale	Dolphin	Porpoise	Grampus	Beluga

CARTILAGENOUS.

Lamprey	Brown spotted Gar fish	Red bellied Bream
Skate	Lump fish	Silver or White bream
Shark	Pipe fish	Yellow Bream
Dog fish	Golden Bream or Sun fish	Black or Blue Bream
Sturgeon		

BONY FISH.*

Eel	Conger eel	Cat fish
Snake fish	Skip jack	Minow
Haddock	Pout	Week fish
Cod	Horse Mackerel	King fish
Frost fish	Blue Mackerel	Sole
Pollock	Speckled Mackerel	Mummychog
Small Pollock	Salmon	White fish
Hake	Salmon Trout	Tide Black fish
Sculpion	Trout	Rock Black fish
Plaice	Smelt	Blue fish (Begallo)
Flounder	Pike or Pickerel	Sheep's Head
Hollybut	Atherine	Red Drum
Dab	Mullet	Black Drum
Red Perch	Herring	Branded Drum
White Perch	Carp	Sheep's Head Drum
Yellow Perch	Pond fish	Mossbonker
Sea Perch	Toad fish	Shadine
Whiting	Roach	Porsie
Sea Bass	Shad	Dace
Striped Bass	Hard Head	Anchovy
Shiner	Alewife	Flying fish
Chub	Bret	Sword fish
Stickle back	Sucker	The Angler or Fishing frog†

The WHALE *(Balæna mysticetus)* is the largest of all animals. In the northern seas some are found 90 feet in length; and in the torrid zone, where they are unmolested, whales have been seen 160 feet in length. The head is greatly disproportioned to the size of the body. In the middle of the head are two orifices, through which they spout water to a great height. The eyes are not larger than those of an ox, and are placed towards the back of the head, for the convenience of seeing both before and behind. They are guarded by eyelids as in quadrupeds; and they appear to be very sharp sighted, and quick of hearing. What is called *Whale bone* adheres to the upper jaw, and is formed of thin parallel laminæ; some of the longest are 12 feet in length: Of these there are from 350 to 500 on each side, according to the age of the whale. The tail, which alone it uses to advance itself in the water, is broad and semilunar, and when the fish lies on one side, its blow is tremendous.

In copulation, the male and female join, it is asserted, *more humano*; and once in two years feel the accesses of desire. Their fidelity to each other is remarkable. An instance of it is related by Mr. Anderson, as follows: "Some fishers having struck one of two whales, a male and a female, in company, the wounded fish made a long and terrible resistance; it struck down a boat with two men in it, with a single blow of its tail, by which all went to the bottom. The other

* Probably some that are placed under this division belong to one or other of the preceding. We are not able accurately to class them.

† This fish is found on the south shore of Long Island, New-York; and is described by Pennant, 3d Vol. British Zoology, p. 120.

still attended its companion and lent it every assistance; till, at last, the fish that was struck sunk under the number of its wounds; while its faithful associate, disdaining to survive the loss, with great bellowing stretched itself upon the dead fish, and shared its fate." The whale goes with young nine or ten months, and generally produces one young one, never above two, which are black and about 10 feet long. The teats of the female are placed in the lower part of the belly. When she suckles her young, she throws herself on one side, on the surface of the water, and the young ones attach themselves to the teats. Nothing can exceed the tenderness and care of the female for her young.

The Whale louse, Sword fish, and Thresher (a species of *Squalus*) are mortal enemies to the whale, who itself is an inoffensive animal.

Formerly whales were found in plenty upon the coasts of the United States; at present they are scarce. The principal branch of the whale fishery in the United States is carried on from Nantucket. The enterprize of the Nantucket whalemen is remarkable. Not satisfied with the scope which the Atlantick Ocean affords them, they have lately proceeded round Cape Horn, and penetrated the great Western Ocean, in pursuit of whales. Capt. Worth has lately returned from a very successful voyage, of which he gives the following account, viz. That he went to the southward from Nantucket, doubled Cape Horn, and then pursued a northwestwardly course, till he arrived at the island of Juan Fernandes.—That here, where a harpoon was scarcely ever thrown, the whales swim in shoals, and that it is quite a matter of choice which of the company they shall fall upon.—That along the coast of Chili, for a considerable distance at sea, no rain falls to incommode the frying of blubber, as happens to the great disadvantage of the whaling business, in Hudson's Bay and Davis's Straits; so that they can carry on their business without any of the interruptions common in other places; in consequence of of which they can make more advantageous voyages. A cargo worth 6000l. sterling, it is said, has been procured in a 15 months voyage to this ocean.

When the seamen see a whale spout, the word is immediately given, fall, fall, when every one hastens from the ship to his boat; six or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats usually belong to one ship.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner strikes him with his harpoon, (a barbed dart) and the monster, finding himself wounded, runs swiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him if they did not give him line fast enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the side of it, one wets it constantly with a mop. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes such a terrible noise with his spouting, that some have compared it to the firing of cannon. As soon as he appears on the surface of the water, some of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a second time, they pierce him with spears in the vital

parts, till he spouts out streams of blood instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him some leagues, till he has lost his strength; and when he is dying he turns himself upon his back, and is drawn on shore, or to the ship, if they be at a distance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on shore; otherwise, they barrel up the pieces and bring them home.

The Beluga *(Delphinus beluga)* is the fourth and last species of the Dolphin genus. The head is short; nose blunt; eyes and mouth small; in each side of each jaw are 9 teeth, short and rather blunt; those of the upper jaw are bent and hollowed, fitted to receive the teeth of the under jaw, when the mouth is closed; it has pectoral fins, nearly of an oval form; beneath the skin may be felt the bones of five fingers, which terminate at the edge of the fin in five very sensible projections. This brings it into the next rank, in the order of beings, with the *Manati*, which we have already described under the head of animals.—Found in the northern parts of the American coasts; particularly in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Hudson's Bay.

The Lamprey frequents most of the rivers in the New-England states, especially where the passage is not interrupted by dams. That part of the lamprey which is below the air holes is salted and dried for food. After the spawning season is over, and the young fry have gone down to the sea, the old fishes attach themselves to the roots and limbs of trees, which have fallen or run into the water, and there perish. A mortification begins at the tail, and proceeds upward to the vital part. Fish of this kind have been found at Plymouth, in New-Hampshire, in different stages of putrefaction.*

The amphibious Lobster is found in the small brooks and swamps in the back parts of North-Carolina. In its head is found the eye-stone.

It is proper to mention in this place the *Siren* or *Mud-iguana*, a fish of the order *Branchiostegi*, in some respects nearly allied to the genus *Muræna* of the order *Apodes*. This singular creature was first observed by Dr. Garden of Charleston, (S. C.) and afterwards described by Mr. Ellis in the Philosophical Transactions for 1766. It has gills, fins and two feet; and is in length from 31 to 49 inches. It is an inhabitant of South-Carolina, where it is found in swampy and muddy places by the sides of pools, and under the trunks of old trees that hang over the water, and feeds on serpents. The feet appear like little arms and hands, each furnished with four fingers, and each finger with a claw. "The head is something like an eel, but more compressed; the eyes are small, and placed as those of the eel are. This smallness of the eye best suits an animal that lives so much in the mud. The nostrils are very plainly to be distinguished; these with the gills, and remarkable length of the lungs, show it to be a true amphibious animal. The mouth is small in proportion to the length of the body; but its palate and inside of the lower jaw are well provided with many rows of pointed teeth; with this provision of na-

* Belknap's Hist. New-Hampshire, Vol. III. p. 176.

ture, added to the sharp exterior bony edges of both the upper and under jaw, the animal seems capable of biting and grinding the hardest kind of food. The skin which is black and full of small scales, resembles shagreen. These scales are of different sizes and shapes, according to their situation; but all appear sunk into its gelatinous surface: Those along the back and belly are of an oblong oval form, and close set together; in the other parts they are round, and more distinct. Both the parts are mottled with small white spots, and have two distinct lines, composed of small white streaks, continued along from the feet to the tail. The fin of the tail has no rays, and is no more than an adipose membrane, like that of the eel."

Dr. Garden, in a letter to Mr. Ellis, mentions a remarkable property of this animal, which is, that his servant, endeavouring to kill one of them by dashing it against the stones, broke it into three or four pieces. [*Encyc. Brit. Art. Muræna.*]

Insects.] The following catalogues of insects and vermes, except some small additions and the annexed descriptions, are taken from Dr. Belknap's History of New-Hampshire, Vol. III. page 180—183.

Horned Beetle	Scarabæus simson.
Carolina Beetle	Scarabæus Carolinus.
Dunghill Beetle	Scarabæus stercorarius.
Apple Beetle	Scarabæus horticola?
Golden Beetle	Scarabæus lanigerus.
	Several new species, and others that have not been arranged.
Stag Beetle	Lucanus cervus.
Fluted Beetle	Lucanus interruptus.
	Dermestes lardarius.
	Dermestes typographus.
Water Flea	Gyrinus natator.
Fetid Beetle	Silpha vespillo.
Lady Fly	Coccinella 2—pustulata.
	Several species.
	Chrysomela—many species.
Wheat Fly	
Weevil	Bruchus pisi.
Snouted Weevil	Curculio quercus.
	Many species.
Goat Chaffer	Cerambyx coriarius.
	Many species.
Fire Fly	Lampyris lucida.
	Several species.
Skipper	Elater oculatus.
	Many species.
Glow Worm	Cicindela Carolina.
	One or two other species.
Cantharides	Bupestris mariana.
	Two or three other species.
Water Beetle	Dytiscus piceus.
	Dytiscus marginalis.
	Dytiscus striatus.
	Several other species.

Black Beetle	Carabus Americanus.
	Numerous species.
Blossom Eater	Meloe nigra.
	Staphylinus maxillosus.
	Forsiculo.—Two species.
Cockroach	Blatta Americana, (non indigenus.)
Grasshopper, Cricket, Locust	Grillus.—Numerous species.
Mole Cricket	Grillus gryllotalpa.
Froghopper, Palm Cricket	Cicada.—Many species.
Large and small Water Fly	Notanecta.
Boat Fly	Several species.
Bug	Cinex.—Numerous species.
Louse, on Cabbages	Aphis brassicæ.
Louse, on leaves of trees and plants	Aphis.—Numerous species.
Bug, on plants and trees	Chermes.—Many species.
Butterfly	Papilio. {Numerous species and several non-descripts.
Night Flutterer, Owl Moth	Sphinx.
	Many new species.
Moth, or Miller	Phalæna.
	Numerous species.
Apple Moth, or Canker Worm	Phalæna wauaria?
Dragon Fly, Adder Fly	Libellula.—Several species.
	Hemerobius pictinicornis.
	Several species.
Oak Apple Fly	Cynips.—Several species.
Saw Fly	Tenthredo betulæ.
Wasp, Hornet	Vespa.—Many species.
Humble Bee, Wild Bee	Aspis.—Several species.
Ant	Formica.—Several species.
Black Fly, Brown Fly	Musca.—Numerous species.
Horse Fly	Tabanus.—Several species.
Mosquito, or Musketoe	Culex pipiens.
Stinging Fly	Conops calcitrans.
Snow Flea	Podura nivalis.
Father Long Legs	{Phalangium. Several species.
Spider	Aranea.—Many species.
Crab, Lobster, Shrimp, Hermit Crab, Slender Crab	Cancer.—Many species.

King Crab, or Horse Shoe	Monoculus polyphemus.
	Monoculus piscinus.
Cray Fish	
Amphibious Lobster	
	Monoculus pulex.
	Monoculus quadricornis.

VERMES.

Sea Clam	Holothuria phantaphus.
Squid	Sepia media.
	Sepia loligo.
Sea Lungs	Medusa pilearis.
Star Fish, or Finger Fish	Asterias.—Three or four species.
Sea Egg	Echinus.—Several species.
Barnacle	Lepas anatifera.
Hog Clam	Mya arenaria.
Razor Shell Clam	Solen ensis.
Long Shell Clam	Solen radiatis.
Oyster	Ostrea.——
Muscle	Mytilus edulis.
Cockle	Nerita littoralis ?
Limpets	Patella fusca.
Sand Shell Clam	Sabella granulata.
Sea Anemone	Anemone marina (locomotiva.)

It is proper to introduce here some account of that curious animal, distinguished by the names of *Animal Flower*, *Sea Nettle*, (from its supposed property of stinging) but more generally by the name of *Sea Anemone*, from its resemblance to the flower of that plant. The first discovery, to our knowledge, of these animals on this part of the American coast, was by the Rev. Dr. Cutler, Rev. Dr. Prince of Salem, and others, at Nahant, in the month of June, 1791. They found them in a place called the *Swallow House*, which is a cavern in the rocks, on the south side of Nahant. When the tide had receded, great numbers of them were discovered attached to the sides of the rocks. Their general appearance was like that of a great number of flowers of different sizes, with six expanded leaves in each blossom, and supported on short, thick flower stems, growing from the rocks. When the leaves or arms of the animal are contracted, it resembles a truncated cone, with its base adhering to the rock; but it has the power of assuming a variety of shapes, as that of a large flower with a number of petals, or flower leaves; or of a full blown anemone; or of a large rose or poppy, &c. When the arms or leaves of the larger ones were extended, they were 5 or 6 inches in circumference, and exhibited a great variety and brilliancy of colours, as purple, flesh, green, violet, delicately shaded with brown or black. On touching the leaves, or arms, they instantly contracted, and when small muscles were offered them, they grasped them in their arms and conducted them to their mouths, which are situated in the centre of the blossom, and directly

swallowed them. Pieces of shells thus swallowed, were afterwards discharged by the mouth, perfectly cleared of their contents.

The Sea Anemone, is said to be viviparous, and to produce 5 or 6 young ones at a time. The Abbe Dicquemarre has shewn by a course of curious but cruel experiments,* that these animals possess, in a most extraordinary degree, the power of re-production; so that scarcely any thing more is necessary to produce as many Sea Anemones as we please, than to cut a single one into so many pieces. To avoid the imputation of cruelty in his experiments, the Abbe argues the favourable consequences which have attended his operations on the animals of this kind, which were so fortunate as to fall into his hands, as he hath not only multiplied their existence, but also renewed their youth; which last, he adds, "is surely no small advantage."†

The Wheat fly, commonly but improperly called the Hessian fly, which has, of late years proved so destructive to the wheat in various parts of the United States, has generally been supposed to have been imported from Europe. This opinion, however, seems not to be well founded. Count Ginanni of Ravenna, in a late learned treatise on the diseases of wheat in its growing state, between seed time and harvest, has given an account of more than 50 different insects that infest the Italian wheat, and yet our wheat fly is not delineated nor described. There is reason therefore to doubt its existence in the south of Europe. Sir Joseph Banks said it did not exist in England; nor could he collect any account of it in Germany. This destructive insect is probably a non-descript, and peculiar to the United States. [*Mitchill.*]

The Ink or Cuttle fish is a curiosity. It is furnished with a cyst of black liquor, which is a tolerable substitute for ink. This it emits when pursued by its enemies. The moment this liquor is emitted the water becomes like a thick, black cloud in the eyes of its pursuer, and it improves this opportunity to make its escape. The cyst of liquor appears designed by Providence solely for the purpose of personal defence, and is certainly a most apt and curious contrivance. The whalemen call these fish Squids, and say that they are eaten in abundance by some species of whales.

Population.] According to the census taken by order of Congress, in 1790, the number of inhabitants in the United States of America, was 3,950,000, nearly. In 1800, the number was 5,305,666.

The American Republick is composed of almost all nations, languages, characters and religions which Europe can furnish; the greater part however, are descended from the English; and all may perhaps, be distinguishingly denominated Federal Americans.

It has generally been considered as a fact, that, of the human race, more males than females are born into the world. The proportion commonly fixed on, is as thirteen to twelve. Hence a conclusive argument has been derived against polygamy. The larger number of

* See Phil. Trans. for 1773.

† Encye. Brit. Art. Animal Flowers.

males has been believed to be a wise appointment of Providence, to balance the destruction of the males in war, by sea and by other occupations, more hazardous to life than the domestick employment of the female sex. The following table, formed from the census of 1790, in which the males and females are numbered in different columns, furnishes a new proof of the truth of the common opinion, as it respects the United States.*

TABLE.

	Males.	Females.	Excess.	
Vermont	44,763	40,505	4,258†	Males.
New-Hampshire	70,937	70,160	777	do.
District of Maine‡				
Massachusetts	182,742	190,582	7,840	Females.
Rhode-Island	31,818	32,652	834	do.
Connecticut	114,926	117,448	2,522	do.
New-York	161,822	152,320	9,502	Males.
New-Jersey	86,667	83,287	3,380	do.
Pennsylvania	217,736	206,363	11,373	do.
Delaware	23,926	22,384	1,540	do.
Maryland	107,254	101,395	5,859	do.
Virginia	227,071	215,046	12,025	do.
Kentucky	32,211	28,922	3,289	do.
North-Carolina	147,494	140,710	6,784	do.
South-Carolina	73,298	66,880	6,418	do.
Georgia	27,147	25,739	1,408	do.
Territory S. of Ohio	16,548	15,365	1,183	do.

It is remarkable, that the excess in all the states is on the side of males, except in Massachusetts, Rhode-Island and Connecticut. In these states the females are considerably the most numerous. This difference is obviously to be ascribed to the large migrations from all these states, to Vermont, the northern and western parts of New-York, the Territory N. W. of Ohio, Kentucky, Pennsylvania, and some to almost all the southern states. A great proportion of these migrants were males; and while they have served to increase the proportion of males, in the states where they have settled, as is strikingly the case in Vermont and Kentucky, to which the migrations have been most numerous, and where the males are to the females nearly as ten to nine, they have served to lessen the proportion of males in the states from whence they migrated.

The number of slaves, in 1790, in all the states, was 697,697. In 1800, 893,605.

* Mr. Bruce, in his travels, affirms that in the tract of country extending from the Isthmus of Suez to the Straits of Babelmandel, which contains the three Arabias, the proportion is fully four women to one man. Here polygamy is practised.

† In the columns of this census, in which are noted *All other free persons*, and *slaves*, the males and females are not distinguished, and are therefore not regarded in this table.

‡ The males and females were not distinguished in the District of Maine, in the census of 1790.

Character and Manners.] Federal Americans, collected together from various countries, of different habits, formed under different governments, and of different languages, customs, manners and religion, have not yet assimilated to that degree as to form a *national* character. We are yet an infant empire, rising fast to maturity, with prospects of a vigorous and powerful manhood. These prospects, however, are clouded by political dissensions.

Until the revolution of 1783, Europeans were strangely ignorant of America and its inhabitants. They concluded that the new world *must* be inferior to the old. The count de Buffon supposed that the animals in this country were uniformly less than in Europe, and thence concluded, that, "on this side of the Atlantick there is a tendency in nature to belittle her productions." The Abbe Raynal, in a former edition of his works, supposed this *belittling* tendency or influence had its effect on the race of whites transplanted from Europe, and thence had the presumption to assert that "America had not yet produced one good poet, one able mathematician, one man of genius in a single art or science." Had the Abbe been justly informed, we presume he would not have hazarded an assertion so false, ungenerous and injurious to the genius and literary character of Americans. The fact is, the United States of America have produced their full proportion of genius in the science of war, in physicks, astronomy and mathematicks; in mechanick arts, in government, in fiscal science, in divinity, in history, in oratory, in poetry, in painting, in musick, and the plastick art. So many have distinguished themselves in some of these branches of science, and such numbers are now living, that it would be an impracticable and invidious task to attempt an enumeration of them.

The two late important revolutions in America, which have been scarcely exceeded in any former period of the world, I mean that of the declaration and establishment of independence, and that of the adoption of a new and excellent form of government without bloodshed, have called to historick fame many great and distinguished characters who might otherwise have slept in oblivion.

One of the most unamiable traits in the character of Federal Americans, has been produced by the unjustifiable practice of enslaving the negroes. The influence of slavery upon the morals, manners, industry and liberties of a people, is extremely pernicious. But under the federal government, from the measures already adopted, we indulge the pleasing hope, that all slaves in the United States, will in time be emancipated, in a manner most consistent with their own happiness and the true interest of their proprietors.

In the middle and northern states there are comparatively but few slaves; and of course there is less difficulty in giving them their freedom. In Massachusetts alone, and we mention it to their distinguished honour, there are NONE. Societies for the manumission of slaves have been instituted in Baltimore, Philadelphia, New-York, Providence and New-Haven, and laws have been enacted in the New-England states, to accomplish the same purpose. And it is with pleasure we can assert, from the best information, that the condition of the negroes in the southern states is much ameliorated of late. The

Friends, (commonly called Quakers) have evinced the propriety of their name, by their goodness in originating, and their vigorous exertions in executing, the truly humane and benevolent design of freeing the negroes. It is earnestly hoped, however, that no measures will be adopted or pursued, which may hazard effects so shocking as have taken place in the West-India Islands, or which may produce a convulsion as unfavourable to the blacks as to their owners. The evil of slavery, if left pretty much to its own course, will best cure itself. At any rate, benevolence dictates that its abolition should be gradual.

The English language is universally spoken in the United States, and in it business is transacted, and the records kept. It is spoken with great purity, and pronounced with propriety in New-England, by persons of education; and, excepting some corruptions in pronunciation, by all ranks of people. In the middle and southern states, where they have had a great influx of foreigners, the language, in many instances, is corrupted, especially in pronunciation. Attempts are making to introduce a uniformity of pronunciation throughout the states, which, for political as well as other reasons, it is hoped will meet the approbation and encouragement of all literary and influential characters.*

Intermingled with the Americans, are the Dutch, Scotch, Irish, French, Germans, Swedes and Jews: all these, except the Scotch and Irish, retain, in a greater or less degree, their native language, in which they perform their publick worship, converse and transact their business with each other.

The time, however, is anticipated, at least earnestly wished for, when all improper distinctions shall be abolished; and when the language, manners, customs, political and religious sentiments of the mixed mass of people who inhabit the United States, shall have become so far assimilated, as that all nominal and party distinctions shall be lost in the general and honourable name of Americans.

Government.] Until the fourth of July, 1776, the present United States were British colonies. On that memorable day, the Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, made a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the King of Great-Britain. Appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of their intentions, they did, in the name and by the authority of the good people of the colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these Unit-

* "The northern and southern states differ widely in their customs, climate, produce, and in the general face of the country. The middle states preserve a medium in all these respects; they are neither so level and hot as the states south, nor so hilly and cold as those north and east. The inhabitants of the north are hardy, industrious, frugal, and in general well informed; those of the south, owing to the warmth of their climate, are more effeminate, indolent and luxurious. The fisheries and commerce are the sinews of the north; tobacco, rice, cotton, wheat and indigo of the south. The northern states are commodiously situated for trade and manufactures; the southern, to furnish provisions and raw materials; and the probability is, that the southern states will one day be supplied with northern manufactures instead of European, and make their remittances in provisions and raw materials." [*MS. Journal of E. Watson, Esq.*]

ed Colonies were, and of right ought to be, FREE and INDEPENDENT States; that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and Great-Britain was, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which Independent States may of right do. For the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine Providence, the delegates then in Congress, fifty-five in number, mutually pledged to each other their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honour.

At the same time they published Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union between the states, in which they took the style of "The UNITED STATES OF AMERICA," and agreed, that each state should retain its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction and right not expressly delegated to Congress by the confederation. By these articles, the Thirteen United States severally entered into a firm league of friendship with each other for their common defence, the security of their liberties, and their mutual and general welfare, and bound themselves to assist each other, against all force offered to, or attacks that might be made upon all, or any of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce or any other pretence whatever. But for the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, it was determined, that Delegates should be annually appointed, in such manner as the Legislature of each state should direct, to meet in Congress the first Monday in November of every year, with a power reserved to each state to recal its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year. No state was to be represented in Congress by less than two, or more than seven members; and no person could be a delegate for more than three years, in any term of six years, nor was any person, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States for which he, or any other for his benefit, should receive any salary, fees or emolument of any kind. In determining questions in Congress, each state was to have one vote. Every state was bound to abide by the determinations of Congress in all questions which were submitted to them by the confederation. The articles of confederation were to be invariably observed by every state, and the Union to be perpetual; nor was any alteration at any time hereafter to be made in any of the articles, unless such alterations be agreed to in Congress, and be afterwards confirmed by the legislatures of every state. The articles of confederation were ratified by Congress, July 9th, 1778.

These articles of confederation, being found inadequate to the purposes of a federal government, for reasons hereafter mentioned, delegates were chosen in each of the United States, to meet and fix upon the necessary amendments. They accordingly met in convention at Philadelphia, in the summer of 1787, and agreed to propose the following CONSTITUTION for the consideration of their constituents, and which we here insert at length for the general information of the peo-

ple, whom it concerns to be well acquainted with the nature of their own government.

CONSTITUTION.

WE, THE PEOPLE of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestick tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

Sect. 1. ALL legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Sect. 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several states, and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative; and, until such enumeration shall be made, the state of New-Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New-York six, New-Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North-Carolina five, South-Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker, and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Sect. 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the

expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President pro tempore in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honour, trust or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment according to law.

Sect. 4. The time, places and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Sect. 5. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorised to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question, shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Sect. 6. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Sect. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to re-consider it. If, after such re-consideration, two thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be re-considered, and if approved by two thirds of that house it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days, (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be re-passed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Sect. 8. The Congress shall have power

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises; to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures ;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States ;

To establish post offices and post roads ;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries ;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court ;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations ;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water ;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years ;

To provide and maintain a navy ;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces ;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions ;

To provide for organizing, arming and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the states respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress ;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings :—And

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Sect. 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the publick safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or ex post facto law shall be passed.

No capitation, or other direct tax, shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one state over those of another ; nor shall

vessels bound to or from one state, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all publick money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince or foreign state.

Sect. 10. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No state shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any state on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress. No state shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another state, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

Sect. 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

Each state shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the state may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes,

then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list, the said House shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice President.

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person, except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased or diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the constitution of the United States."

Sect. 2. The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other publick ministers

and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Sect. 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other publick ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Sect. 4. The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachments for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanours.

ARTICLE III.

Sect. 1. The Judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Sect. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other publick ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more states, between a state and citizens of another state, between citizens of different states, between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other publick ministers and consuls, and those in which a state shall be a party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trials shall be held in the state where the said crime shall have been committed; but when not committed within any

state, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Sect. 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

Sect. 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each state to the publick acts, records and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Sect. 2. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

A person charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the state having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labour in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labour, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labour may be due.

Sect. 3. New states may be admitted by the Congress into this union, but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state; nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislatures of the states concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular state.

Sect. 4. The United States shall guarantee to every state in this union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestick violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several states, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which in either case,

shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress: Provided, that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this constitution, as under the confederation.

This constitution and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties, made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several state Legislatures, and all Executive and Judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several states, shall be bound by oath or affirmation, to support this constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or publick trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of nine states, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this constitution between the states so ratifying the same.

DONE in Convention by the unanimous consent of the states present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord One Thousand Seven Hundred and Eighty-Seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America, the Twelfth. In Witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *President.*

Signed also by all the Delegates which were present from twelve states.

Attest, WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

The foregoing Constitution has since been adopted by all the states in the Union, as is hereafter more particularly mentioned.

The Conventions of a number of the states having at the time of their adopting the Constitution expressed a desire, in order to prevent misconstruction or abuse of its powers, that further declaratory and restrictive clauses should be added: And as extending the ground of publick confidence in the government will best ensure the beneficent ends of its institution,

RESOLVED by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, two thirds of both houses concurring, That the following articles be proposed to the

legislatures of the several states, as amendments to the Constitution of the United States, all or any of which articles, when ratified by three fourths of the said legislatures, to be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of the said constitution, viz.

Articles in addition to, and amendment of, the Constitution of the United States of America, proposed by Congress, and ratified by the legislatures of the several states, pursuant to the fifth Article of the original constitution.

ARTICLE I.

After the first enumeration required by the first article of the Constitution, there shall be one Representative for every thirty thousand, until the number shall amount to one hundred, after which the proportion shall be so regulated by Congress, that there shall not be less than one hundred Representatives nor less than one Representative for every forty thousand persons, until the number of Representatives shall amount to two hundred, after which the proportion shall be so regulated by Congress, that there shall not be less than two hundred Representatives, nor more than one Representative for every fifty thousand persons.

ARTICLE II.

No law varying the compensation for the services of the Senators and Representatives shall take effect, until an election of Representatives shall have intervened.

ARTICLE III.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE IV.

A well regulated militia being nesessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE V.

No soldier shall in time of peace be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE VI.

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE VII.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual service in time of war or publick danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of

life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for publick use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VIII.

In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and publick trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favour, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE IX.

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact, tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE X.

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE XI.

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE XII.

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XIII.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XIV.

The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot, for President and Vice-President, one of whom at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name, in their ballots, the person voted for as President, and, in distinct ballots, the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate—The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no per-

son have such a majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March then next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President.

The person having the greatest number of votes, as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then, from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President—a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President, shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

Society of the Cincinnati.] This society was instituted immediately on the close of the war in 1783. They denominated themselves "*The Society of the Cincinnati*," from the high veneration they professed for the character of that illustrious Roman, *Lucius Quintus Cincinnatus*.

The persons who constitute this society, are all the commisioned and brevet officers of the army and navy of the United States, who served three years, and who left the service with reputation; all officers who were in actual service at the conclusion of the war; all the principal staff officers of the continental army; and the officers who have been deranged by the several resolutions of Congress, upon the different reforms of the army.

They rest their institution upon the two great pillars of FRIENDSHIP and CHARITY. Their benevolent intentions are, to diffuse comfort and support to any of their unfortunate companions who have seen better days, and have merited a milder fate; to wipe the tear from the eye of the widow, who must have been consigned, with her helpless infants, to indigence and wretchedness, but for this charitable institution; to succour the fatherless; to rescue the female orphan from destruction; and to enable the son to emulate the virtues of the father. "Let us then," they conclude, "prosecute with ardour what we have instituted in sincerity; let Heaven and our own consciences approve our conduct; let our actions be our best comment on our words; and let us leave a lesson to posterity, THAT THE GLORY OF SOLDIERS CANNOT BE COMPLETED, WITHOUT ACTING WELL THE PART OF CITIZENS."

Agriculture and Commerce.] The three important objects of attention in the United States, are agriculture, commerce and manufactures. The richness of the soil, which amply rewards the industrious husbandman; the temperature of the climate, which admits

of steady labour; the cheapness of land, which tempts the foreigner from his native home; and the extensive tracts of unsettled lands, lead us to fix on agriculture as the present great leading interest of this country. This furnishes outward cargoes not only for all our own ships, but for those also which foreign nations send to our ports; or in other words, it pays all our importations; it supplies a great part of the clothing of the inhabitants, and food for them and their cattle. What is consumed at home, including the materials for manufacturing, has been estimated at four or five times the value of what is exported.

The number of people employed in agriculture, is at least three parts in four of the inhabitants of the United States. It follows of course that they form the body of the militia, who are the bulwark of the nation. The value of the property occupied by agriculture, is many times greater than the property employed in every other way. The settlement of waste lands, the subdivision of farms, and the numerous improvements in husbandry, annually increase the pre-eminence of the agricultural interest. The resources we derive from it are at all times certain and indispensably necessary. Besides, the rural life promotes health by its active nature; and morality, by keeping people from the luxuries and vices of the populous towns. In short, agriculture is the spring of our commerce, and the parent of our manufactures. It is friendly, I had almost said it is necessary, to the existence of a republican form of government.

The vast extent of sea coast, which spreads before these confederated states;* the number of excellent harbours and sea-port towns; the numerous creeks and immense bays, which indent the coast; and the rivers, lakes and canals, which peninsulate the whole country; added to its agricultural advantages and improvements, give this part of the world superior advantages for trade. Our commerce, including our exports, imports, shipping, manufactures and fisheries, may properly be considered as forming one interest. This has been considered as the great object, and the most important interest of the New-England States.

The following tables, taken from authenticated copies, with the annexed observations, will give the best idea which the author can furnish of the present state of commerce in the United States.

* "When the extent of America is considered, boldly fronting the old world, blessed with every climate, capable of every production, abounding with the best harbours and rivers on the globe, and already overspread with three millions of souls, mostly descendants of Englishmen, inheriting all their ancient enthusiasm for liberty, and enterprising almost to a fault; what may be expected from such a people in such a country? The partial hand of nature has laid off America upon a much larger scale than any other part of the world. Hills in America are mountains in Europe, brooks are rivers, and ponds are swelled into lakes. In short, the map of the world cannot exhibit a country uniting so many natural advantages, so pleasingly diversified, and that offers such abundant and easy resources to agriculture, commerce and manufactures.

"In contemplating future America, the mind is lost in the din of cities, in harbours and rivers clouded with sails, and in the immensity of her population."

[*MS. Journal of E. Watson, Esq.*]

Amount of the exports of the United States; with the tonnage, revenues, &c. carefully extracted from the reports of the Secretary of the Treasury.

Years.	Domestick produce.	Foreign produce.	Total.	Tonnage.	Revenue.
	Dols.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Tons.	Dolls.
1790	14,200,900	1,799,100	16,000,000	486,890	———
1791	14,600,000	3,799,202	28,399,202	502,698	4,771,342
1792	15,060,500	5,945,068	21,005,568	567,608	8,772,458
1793	15,420,900	10,590,888	26,011,788	627,570	6,450,195
1794	16,200,100	16,843,625	33,043,725	628,617	9,439,855
1795	18,064,050	29,791,506	47,855,556	747,964	9,515,758
1796	20,024,021	47,040,076	67,064,097	831,900	8,740,329
1797	24,052,671	27,242,039	51,294,710	876,912	8,758,780
1798	27,991,413	33,335,998	61,327,411	868,329	10,161,097
1799	33,142,187	45,523,335	78,665,522	920,000	12,777,487
1800	31,840,903	———	70,971,780	———	12,413,978
1801	46,377,792	———	93,020,515	———	12,945,455
1802	36,182,173	———	71,957,144	———	———
1803	42,205,961	———	55,800,033	917,000	———

Aggregate amount of the Exports of the United States, for the year 1801.

	Dollars.
New-Hampshire	565,394
Massachusetts	13,492,632
Rhode-Island	2,433,363
Connecticut	1,606,809
Vermont	31,479
New-York	13,792,276
New-Jersey	26,227
Pennsylvania	12,677,475
Delaware	440,504
Maryland	8,006,290
Virginia	4,660,361
Kentuckey	626,673
Tennessee, North-Western Territory, Missisippi	443,955
North-Carolina	659,390
South-Carolina	10,639,365
Georgia	1,854,951
Total	71,957,144

In 1799, 1800, 1801 and 1802, the exports of the United States fluctuated from 68,000,000 to 93,000,000 dollars. The American importations of manufactures from the British dominions in Europe and Asia, were little less than 27,000,000 of dolls. In 1802, the imported manufactures from all other countries were probably less than 10,000,000 dollars. The wines, teas, salt, distilled spirits and other manufactured produce, from places not British, amounted probably to 30,000,000 dollars, and the like unmanufactured articles from the

British dominions were probably worth 3,000,000 dollars. The coarse and fine manufactures of the United States, exclusive of meal, boards, staves and similar articles of wood, may be safely computed at 40,000,000 dollars. The China trade is considerable, and if cotton wool should be exported to Canton, the trade will increase. The surplus of our cotton in 1803, beyond domestick consumption, is computed at 30,000,000 pounds. [*T. Coxe.*]

The value of the exports of these states before the revolution is not precisely ascertained; but the whole exportation of North-America, including the remaining British Colonies, and Newfoundland, (whose fishery alone was estimated at more than 2,200,000 dollars in 1775) Bermuda, and the Bahamas, were computed to have been in 1771, 15,280,000 dollars. In these were comprised the shipments between those islands and the main, and from province to province, as every vessel which departed from one American port to another, was obliged to clear out her cargo as if destined to a foreign country.

In respect to the commercial intercourse between the United States and foreign nations, as regulated by the existing treaties, or by the laws of the land, the subject is too extensive, complex, and important to be embraced to advantage within a compass proportioned to the nature of this work; and if it could be, the author feels himself incompetent to the task.

Manufactures.] The most considerable branches of manufactures in the United States, are the following, viz. Of *Skins*—Tanned and tawed leathers, dressed skins, shoes, boots and slippers, harness and saddlery of all kinds, portmanteaus and trunks, leather breeches, gloves, muffs and tippets, parchment and glue. Of *Iron*—Bar and sheet iron, steel, nail rods and nails, implements of husbandry, stoves, pots and other household utensils, the steel and iron work of carriages, and for ship building, anchors, scale beams and weights, various tools of artificers, and arms of different kinds. Of *Wood*—Ships, cabinet wares and turnery, wool and cotton cards, and other machinery for manufactures and husbandry, mathematical instruments, coopers' wares of every kind. Of *Flax* and *Hemp*—Cables, sail cloth, cordage, twine and packthread. Of *Clay*—Bricks and coarse tiles, and potters' wares. Ardent spirits and malt liquors. Writing and printing paper, sheathing and wrapping paper, paste boards, fullers' or press papers, and paper hangings. Hats of fur and wool, and mixtures of both, Women's stuff and silk shoes. Refined sugar. Chocolate. Oil of animals and seeds, soap, spermaceti and tallow candles. Copper and brass wares, particularly utensils for distillers, sugar refiners, and brewers, andirons and other articles for household use. Clocks, philosophical apparatus. Tin wares of almost all kinds for ordinary use. Carriages of all kinds. Snuff, chewing and smoking tobacco. Starch and hair powder. Lampblack and other painters' colours. Gunpowder.

Besides the manufacture of these articles, which are carried on as regular trades, and have attained to a considerable degree of maturity, there is a vast scene of household manufacturing, which contributes very largely to the supply of the community. These domestick

manufactures are prosecuted as well in the southern, as in the middle and northern states ; great quantities of coarse cloths, coatings, serges, and flannels, linsey-woolseys, hosiery of wool, cotton and thread, coarse fustians, jeans and muslins, checked and striped cotton and linen goods, bedticks, coverlets and counterpanes, tow linens, coarse shirtings, sheetings, towelling and table linen, and various mixtures of wool and cotton, and of cotton and flax, are made in the household way, and in many instances, to an extent, not only sufficient for the supply of the families in which they are made, but for sale, and even in some cases for exportation. It is computed, in a number of districts, that two thirds, three fourths, four fifths, and in some places even a greater proportion, of all the clothing of the inhabitants is made by themselves. In a moral and political view these facts are highly pleasing and interesting.

The above enumeration does not comprehend all the articles that are manufactured as regular trades. The following articles, though manufactured in a less extensive degree, and some of them in less perfection, ought to be added. Gold, silver, pewter, lead, glass, and stone wares of many kinds, books in various languages, printing types and presses, bells, combs, buttons, corn fans, ploughs and all other implements of husbandry. Some of these are still in their infancy, as are others not enumerated, but which are attended with favourable appearances. There are other articles also of very great importance, which, though strictly speaking, manufactures, are omitted, as being immediately connected with husbandry ; such are flour and meal of all kinds, pot and pearl ashes, pitch, tar, turpentine, maple sugar, wine, and the like.

The manufacture of maple sugar, though it has for many years been carried on in the small way, in the eastern states, has lately become an object of publick attention. The eastern and middle states, furnish a sufficient number of maple trees to supply the United States with the article of sugar, and it is asserted, of a quality "equal in the opinion of competent judges, to the best sugars imported from the West-India Islands." No less than 18 million pounds of West-India sugars, manufactured by the hands of slaves, are annually imported into and consumed in the United States. In proportion as this quantity can be lessened by our own manufactures, by the hands of freemen, the wealth of the United States will be increased, and the cause of humanity promoted.

It is asserted, that the value of the manufactures of the United States is more than double the value of their exports in native commodities, and also much greater than the gross value of all their imports, including the value of goods exported again. The American manufacturers confine their attention chiefly to articles of necessity, comfort and utility. Since the establishment of the federal government, the manufactures have increased with great rapidity ; and particularly those of the household kind, which are carried on more or less in the families of almost all the farmers and planters in the several states.*

* See Mr. Hamilton's Report on Manufactures, while Secretary of the Treasury.

Military Strength.] Standing armies are deemed inconsistent with a republican government; we of course have none. Our military strength lies in a well disciplined militia, which are estimated to amount to about one million of men; a great proportion are well disciplined, veteran troops. No nation or kingdom in Europe, can bring into the field an army of equal numbers, more formidable than can be raised in the United States.

Navy.] The navy of the United States may be said to have commenced its existence in 1797. Its progress since has been as follows:

	Vessels.	Guns.
1797	3	124
1798	13	300
1799	42	950
1800	42	670
1801	20	600
1802	20	600
1803	18	550

[*Blodget's Stat. Tab.*]

Revenue and Expenditure.] The revenue of the United States is raised from duties on the tonnage of vessels entered in the United States, and on imported goods, wares and merchandize. The following shows the revenue and expenditure of the United States since 1791.

Years.	Revenue. Dolls.	Expenditure. Dolls.
1791	4,771,200	3,797,436
1792	8,771,600	8,962,920
1793	6,450,195	6,479,977
1794	9,439,855	9,041,593
1795	9,515,758	10,151,240
1796	8,740,329	8,367,776
1797	8,758,780	8,625,877
1798	8,179,170	8,583,613
1799	12,549,381	11,004,965
1800	12,413,978	11,952,534
1801	12,945,455	12,273,376
1802	14,995,793	13,270,457
1803		

[*Blodget's Stat. Table.*]

Money, Debt and National Funds.] The following information on these heads is copied from Blodget's Statistical Table, compiled chiefly from official documents.

Year.	MONEY, not including bank paper.		Deduct from the debt.	
	Metallick Medium.	Nominal publick debt.	Active Sinking Fund and reimbursements.	Custom-house, bonds & cash in the treasury.
	Dolls.	Highest war debt.	Dolls.	
1774	4,000,000	200,000,000		Bonds are underrated per valuation.
1784	10,000,000	Funded.		
1790	9,000,000	72,237,301		
1791	16,000,000	76,781,953		
1792	18,000,000	77,124,300		
1793	20,000,000	78,402,246	2,019,194	6,000,000
1794	21,500,000	79,424,668	2,265,022	8,000,000
1795	19,000,000	84,989,438	3,254,235	10,000,000
1796	16,500,000	83,404,139	3,900,344	11,000,000
1797	16,000,000	81,324,139	4,549,627	13,000,000
1798	14,000,000	81,244,139	5,233,174	12,000,000
1799	17,000,000	88,456,038	9,052,232	13,000,000
1800	17,500,000	89,443,437	9,274,607	13,000,000
1801	17,000,000	88,745,704	10,876,686	13,500,000
1802	16,500,000	87,455,521	12,013,777	13,500,000
1803	16,000,000	* * *	* * * *	13,000,000

The United States have a dormant and a sinking fund, appropriated by law to the discharge of present and future publick debts, as follows:

Stocks drawing interest purchased by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, with specie, by law of the United States, of August 1790, with the surplus duties by law of May 1792, with proceeds of the publick lands, &c.		5,842,307
4500 lots in the city of Washington,		1,500,000
235 millions of acres of land, limited by law at not less than two dollars per acre,	Dolls.	470,000,000

Louisiana is now added.

The present eligible situation of the United States, compared with that of Europe at large, as it respects taxes or contributions for the payment of all publick charges, appears from the following statement, furnished (1792) by a gentleman of acknowledged abilities.* In the

* Hon. Mr. Dane of Beverly.

United States, the average proportion of his earnings which each citizen pays for the support of the civil, military and naval establishments, and for the discharge of the interest of the publick debts of his country, is about *one dollar and a quarter*; equal to two day's labour, nearly; that is, 5 millions of dollars to 4 millions of people. In Great-Britain, France, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Germany, &c. the taxes for these objects, on an average, amount to about six dollars and a quarter, to each person. Hence it appears that in the United States we enjoy the blessings of free government and mild laws; of personal liberty, and protection of property, for one fifth part of the sum for each individual, which is paid in Europe for the purchase of publick benefits of a similar nature, and too generally without attaining their objects: For less than one fifth, indeed, as in European countries, in general, 10 days labour, on an average, do not amount to $6\frac{1}{4}$ dollars. In this estimate proper allowances are made for publick debts. In this estimate proper allowances are made for publick debts. The Indian war in the United States, at present, requires nearly half a million of dollars, annually extra; but this, being temporary only, is not taken into the estimate.

From the best data that can be collected, the taxes in the United States, for county, town and parish purposes; for the support of schools, the poor, roads, &c. appear to be considerably less than in those countries; and perhaps the objects of them, except in roads, is attained in a more perfect degree. Great precision is not to be expected in these calculations; but we have sufficient documents to prove, that we are not far from the truth. The proportion in the United States is well ascertained; and with equal accuracy in France by Mr. Neckar; and in England, Holland, Spain and other kingdoms in Europe, by him, Zimmerman, and other writers on the subject.

For the objects of the late war and civil government in the United States, nearly 12 millions of dollars were annually raised, for nine years successively, apportioned on the number of inhabitants at that period, which amounted to a little short of four dollars to each person. This was raised principally by direct taxes. Perhaps a contribution of six dollars a person would not have been so severely felt, had a part of it been raised by impost and excise. These sums, raised for the war, by the free exertions of the people, obviate all such objections, as assert that the United States are poor; at the same time they evince that their situation is eligible and prosperous, by shewing how large a proportion of their earnings the people in general can apply to their private purposes.

Mint.] A national mint was established in 1791. It has since been provided by law that the purity and intrinsick value of the silver coin shall be equal to that of Spain; and of the gold coins, to those of the strictest European nations. The government of the United States derives no profit from the coinage.

In the year ending December 31, 1804, the coins struck at the Mint of the United States, were 191,092 pieces of silver, viz.

	19,570 dollars	
	156,519 half do.	
	6,738 quarter do.	
	8,265 dismes	
	equal to	100,340 dollars.
43,597 gold coins, viz.		
	9,795 eagles	
	30,475 half do.	
	3,327 quarter do.	
	equal to	258,642*
1,812,159 copper coins, viz.		
	756,838 cents	
	1,055,312 half do.	
	equal to	12,844 94
Total number of coins,	2,046,839.	
	Amount,	371,827 94

Bank of the United States.] This Bank was incorporated by act of Congress, February 25th, 1791, by the name and style of *The President, Directors, and Company of the Bank of the United States.* The amount of the capital stock is 10 million dollars, one fourth of which is in gold and silver; the other three fourths, in that part of the publick debt of the United States, which, at the time of payment, bears an accruing interest of 6 per cent. per annum. Two millions of this capital stock of 10 millions, was subscribed by the President, in behalf of the United States. The stockholders are to continue a corporate body, by the act, until the 4th day of March, 1811; and are capable in law, of holding property to an amount not exceeding, in the whole, 15 million dollars, including the aforesaid 10 million dollars, capital stock. The corporation may not at any time owe, whether by bond, bill or note, or other contract, more than 10 million dollars, over and above the monies then actually deposited in the bank for safe keeping, unless the contracting of any greater debt shall have been previously authorised by a law of the United States. The corporation is not at liberty to receive more than six per cent. per annum for or upon its loans or discounts; nor to purchase any publick debt whatever, or to deal or trade, directly or indirectly, in any thing except bills of exchange, gold or silver bullion, or in the sale of goods really and truly pledged, for money lent, and not redeemed in due time, or of goods which shall be the produce of its bonds; they may sell any part of the publick debt of which its stock shall be composed. Loans not exceeding 100,000 dollars, may be made to the United States; and to particular states, of a sum not exceeding 50,000.

* The Director of the Mint, from whose official report the above is taken, observes, that "about 11,000 dollars of the gold coin is the produce of virgin gold, found in the county of Cabarrus, North-Carolina." More is expected from the same quarter.

Offices for the purposes of discount and deposite only, may be established within the United States, upon the same terms, and in the same manner, as shall be practised at the bank. Seven of these offices, called *Branch Banks*, have been already established, viz. at Boston, New-York, Baltimore, Charleston, Washington, Norfolk, and Savannah. The faith of the United States is pledged that no other bank shall be established by any future law of the United States, during the continuance of the above corporation. The great benefits of this Bank, as it respects publick credit and commerce have already been experienced.

Religion.] The constitution of the United States, provides against the making of any law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise of it. And in the constitution of the respective states, religious liberty is a fundamental principle. In this important article, our government is distinguished from that of every other nation. Religion here is placed on its proper basis; without the feeble and unwarranted aid of the civil power, it is left to be supported by its own evidence, by the lives of its professors, and the Almighty care of its Divine Author. Its publick teachers are maintained by an equal tax on property, by pew rents, monies at interest, marriage and burial fees, small glebes, land rents, and voluntary contributions.

All being left at liberty to choose their own religion, the people, as might easily be supposed, have varied in their choice. The bulk of the people would denominate themselves Christians; a small proportion of them are Jews; some plead the sufficiency of natural religion, and reject revelation as unnecessary and fabulous; and many have yet their religion to choose. Christians profess their religion under various forms, and with different ideas of its doctrines, ordinances and precepts. The following denominations of Christians are more or less numerous in the United States, viz. Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Dutch Reformed Church, Episcopalians, Baptists, Quakers or Friends, Methodists, Roman Catholicks, German Lutherans, German Calvinists or Presbyterians, Moravians, Tunkers, Mennonists, Universalists and Shakers. For a particular account of these several sects of Christians, the reader is referred to Miss H. Adams's "View of Religions."*

Of these sects of Christians, Congregationalists are the most numerous. In New-England alone, besides those which are scattered through the middle and southern states, there are about 1200 congregations of this denomination.

Next to Congregationalists, Presbyterians are the most numerous denomination of Christians in the United States. They have a constitution, by which they regulate all their ecclesiastical proceedings, and a confession of faith, which all church officers and church members are required to subscribe. Hence they have preserved a singular uniformity in their religious sentiments, and have con-

* A new and improved Edition of this judiciously compiled and useful work, has lately been published by Manning and Loring, Boston.

ducted their ecclesiastical affairs with a great degree of order and harmony.

The body of the Presbyterians inhabit the middle and southern states, and are united under the same constitution. By this constitution, the Presbyterians, who are governed by it, in 1796, were divided into five synods and eighteen Presbyteries; viz. 1. Synod of New-York, 5 presbyteries; 94 congregations; 61 settled ministers.—2. Synod of Philadelphia, 6 presbyteries; 92 congregations; 60 settled ministers, besides the ministers and congregations belonging to Baltimore presbytery.—3. Synod of Virginia, 4 presbyteries; 70 congregations; 49 settled ministers, exclusive of the congregation and ministers of Transylvania presbytery.—4. Synod of the Carolinas, 3 presbyteries; 82 congregations; 42 settled ministers; the ministers and congregations in Abington presbytery not included. If we suppose the number of congregations in the presbyteries which made no returns to their Synods to be 100, and the number of settled ministers in the same to be 40, the whole number of presbyterian congregations in this connection will be 438, which are supplied by 223 settled ministers, and between 70 and 80 candidates, besides a number of ordained ministers who have no particular charges. Each of the four synods meet annually; besides which they have a joint meeting by their commissioners, once a year, in General Assembly at Philadelphia.

The Presbyterian churches are governed by congregational, presbyterial and synodical assemblies. These assemblies possess no civil jurisdiction. Their power is wholly moral or spiritual, and that only ministerial and declarative. They possess the right of requiring obedience to the laws of Christ, and of excluding the disobedient from the privileges of the church; and the powers requisite for obtaining evidence and inflicting censure; but the highest punishment to which their authority extends, is to exclude the contumacious and impenitent from the congregation of believers.

The Dutch Reformed churches in the United States, who maintain the doctrine of the synod of Dort, held in 1618, are between 70 and 80 in number, constituting six classes, which form one synod, styled "The Dutch Reformed Synod of New-York and New-Jersey." The classes consist of ministers and ruling elders; each classis delegates two ministers and an elder to represent them in synod.

The number of *Protestant Episcopal* churches in the United States is not ascertained; in New-England there are between forty and fifty; but in the southern states they are much more numerous. Bishops of Connecticut, New-York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Massachusetts, Vermont, Maryland, and South-Carolina have been elected by the conventions of their respective states, and have been duly consecrated.

The Baptists, with some exceptions, are upon the Calvinistick plan as to doctrines, and independents as to church government and discipline.

Of this denomination there were in 1793—

	Associat.	Churches.	Ministers.	Members.
Particular Baptists	41	956	1177	67574
General Baptists, who hold laying on of Hands essential to communion	1	20	28	1672
Ditto, who hold large Communion	1	15	24	1447
Ditto, who hold perseverance in grace	1	13	26	575
Ditto, who have no communion with other Churches		4	5	157
Ditto, who hold final falling from grace	1	4	4	67
Seventh day Baptists		12	16	910
Negroes		5	7	969
Indians		3	4	100
Total Amount	45	1032	1291	73471

Friends, commonly called Quakers.* This denomination of Christians arose about the year 1648, and were first collected into religious societies by their highly respected elder, George Fox. They came to America as early as 1656. The first settlers of Pennsylvania were all of this denomination; and the number of Friends' meetings in the United States, at present, is between 300 and 400, 250 of which are south of the state of New-York.

The Methodist denomination of Christians arose in England in 1739; and made their first appearance in America, about the year 1772. Their general style is, "The United Societies of the Methodist Episcopal Church."

The late celebrated Mr. John Wesley is considered as the father of the class of Methodists, called *Arminian Methodists*. The famous Mr. Whitefield, was the leader of the *Calvinistick Methodists*, who are numerous in England, and a few are in different parts of the United States.

In 1797, the number of *Wesleian* Methodists in the United States, was 46,445 whites, 12,218 blacks; of these 2482 were in New-England, 8 only of which were blacks.

The whole number of Roman Catholicks in the United States was estimated, in 1796, at about 50,000; one half of which were in the state of Maryland. They have a bishop who resides in Maryland, and many of their congregations are large and respectable.

The German inhabitants in these states, who principally belong to Pennsylvania and New-York, are divided into a variety of sects; the principal of which are Lutherans, Calvinists or Presbyterians, Moravians, Tunkers, and Mennonists. Of these the German Lutherans are the most numerous. Of this denomination, and the German Presbyterians or Calvinists, who are next to them in numbers, there are upwards of 60 ministers in Pennsylvania—and the former have

* They received their appellation from this circumstance—In the year 1650, George Fox, being brought before two justices in Derbyshire, one of them, scoffing at him, for having bidden him and those about him, to tremble at the word of the Lord, gave to him and his followers, the name of Quakers; a name by which they have since been usually denominated; but they themselves adopted the appellation of Friends.

12, and the latter 6 churches in the state of New-York. Many of their churches are large and splendid, and in some instances furnished with organs. These two denominations live together in the greatest harmony, often preaching in each others' churches, and sometimes uniting in the erection of a church, in which they alternately worship.

The MORAVIANS are a respectable body of Christians in these states. Of this denomination, there were, in 1788, about 1300 souls in Pennsylvania; viz. at Bethlehem, between 5 and 600, which number has since increased—at Nazareth, 450; at Litiz, upwards of 300. Their other settlements, in the United States, are at Hope, in New-Jersey, about 100 souls; at Wachovia, on Yadkin river, North Carolina, containing 6 churches. Besides these regular settlements, formed by such only as are members of the brethren's church, and live together in good order and harmony, there are in different parts of Pennsylvania, Maryland and New-Jersey, and in the cities and towns of Newport, (Rhode Island) New-York, Philadelphia, Lancaster, Yorktown, &c. congregations of the brethren, who have their own church and minister, and hold the same principles, doctrinal tenets, and church rites and ceremonies, as the former, though their local situation does not admit of such particular regulations as are peculiar to the regular settlements.

They call themselves, "*The United Brethren of the Protestant Episcopal Church.*" They are called Moravians, because the first settlers in the English dominions were chiefly migrants from Moravia. These were the remnant and genuine descendants of the church of the ancient United Brethren, established in Bohemia and Moravia, as early as the year 1456. About the middle of the 16th century, they left their native country to avoid persecution, and to enjoy liberty of conscience, and the true exercise of the religion of their forefathers. They were received in Saxony, and other Protestant dominions and were encouraged to settle among them, and were joined by many serious people of other denominations. They adhere to the Augustan Confession of Faith, which was drawn up by the protestant divines at the time of the reformation in Germany, in the year 1530, and presented at the diet of the empire at Augsburg; and which, at that time, contained the doctrinal system of all the established Protestant churches. They retain the discipline of their ancient church, and make use of Episcopal ordination, which has been handed down to them in a direct line of succession for more than three hundred years.*

They profess to live in strict obedience to the ordinances of Christ, such as the observation of the Sabbath, Infant Baptism, and the Lord's

* See David Crantz's History of "The Ancient and Modern United Brethren's Church, translated from the German, by the Rev. Benjamin La Trobe," London, 1780. Those who wish to obtain a thorough and impartial knowledge of their religious sentiments and customs, may see them excellently summed up in a plain but nervous style, in "An Exposition of Christian Doctrine, as taught in the Protestant church of the United Brethren, written in German, by A. G. Spangenberg;" and translated and published in English in 1774.

Supper: and in addition to these, they practise the foot washing, the kiss of love, and the use of the lot.

They were introduced into America by Count Zinzendorf, and settled at Bethlehem, which is their principal settlement in America, as early as 1741. Regularity, industry, ingenuity and economy, are characteristicks of these people.

The TUNKERS, so called in derision, from the word *tunken, to put a morsel in sauce*, first appeared in America, in the fall of the year 1719, when about twenty families landed in Philadelphia, and dispersed themselves in various parts of Pennsylvania. They are what are called General Baptists, and hold to general redemption and general salvation.

Their principal settlement is at Ephrata, sometimes called Tunkerstown, in Lancaster county, sixty miles westward of Philadelphia. Besides this congregation there were, in 1770, fourteen others in various other parts of Pennsylvania, and some in Maryland. The whole, exclusive of those in Maryland, amounted to upwards of 2000 souls.

The MENNONISTS derive their name from Menno Simon, a native of Witmars, in Germany, a man of learning, born in the year 1505, in the time of the reformation by Luther and Calvin. He was a famous Roman Catholick preacher, till about the year 1531, when he became a Baptist. Some of his followers came into Pennsylvania from New-York and settled at Germantown, as early as 1692. This is at present their principal congregation, and the mother of the rest. Their whole number, in 1770, in Pennsylvania, was upwards of 4000, divided into thirteen churches, and forty-two congregations, under the care of fifteen ordained ministers, and fifty-three licensed preachers.

The denomination styled UNIVERSALISTS, though their schemes are very various, may properly enough be divided into two classes, viz. Those who embrace the scheme of the late Dr. Chauncey, exhibited in his book entitled "The Salvation of all Men;" and the disciples of Mr. John Murray.

The number of these denominations is not known. The open advocates of the doctrine of the salvation of all men, are comparatively few. The latter sect of Universalists have a number of constituted churches, which are governed by an ecclesiastical constitution, formed in 1789, by a small convention of their ministers at Philadelphia.

There is a small sect of Christians, called SHAKERS, which have existed in America since 1774, when a few of them came from England to New-York, and there being joined by a few others, they settled at Nisqueunia, above Albany, which is their principal settlement: A few others are scattered in different parts of the country, but are now diminishing.

The JEWS are not numerous in the United States. They have synagogues at Savannah, Charleston, (S. C.) Philadelphia, New-York and Newport. Besides those who reside at these places, there are a few others scattered in different towns in the United States.

The Jews in Charleston, among other peculiarities in burying their dead, have these: After the funeral dirge is sung, and just be-

fore the corpse is deposited in the grave, the coffin is opened and a small bag of earth taken from the grave, is carefully put under the head of the deceased; then some powder, said to be earth brought from Jerusalem, and carefully kept for this purpose, is taken and put upon the eyes of the corpse, in token of their remembrance of the holy land, and of their expectations of returning thither in God's appointed time. Whether this custom is universal among the Jews, is not known.

They generally expect a glorious return to the Holy Land, when they shall be exalted above all the nations of the earth. And they flatter themselves that the period of their return will speedily arrive, though they do not venture to fix the precise time.

The whole number of persons who profess the Jewish religion, in all parts of the world, is supposed to be about three millions; who, as their phrase is, are witnesses of the unity of God in all the nations in the world. They are more properly a standing witness of the fulfilment of prophecy and of the truth of revelation.

Besides the religious sects enumerated, there are a few of the German inhabitants in Pennsylvania, who are styled Swainfildians, and in Maryland, a small number called Nicolites or New-Quakers; but with the distinguishing sentiments of these sects I am not acquainted.

Laws.] The laws of the United States are of a complex character, relating to objects of *State* and *Federal* jurisdiction.

I. The object of the state jurisdiction comprehends every case, not expressly prohibited by the Federal constitution. The laws are written and unwritten. The written law of every state is composed of the constitution of the United States, acts of Congress and treaties, constitution of the state, and the acts of the state. The unwritten law of every state is composed of the common law of England, as far as it was applicable in the settlement of the state, of the customs and usages of the people, sanctioned by time, or recognized by the courts of law. The statute law of England prior to the revolution has force, when the statute was enacted prior to the settlement of the colony, and was adapted to the situation of the settlers, or where the statute explicitly extended to the colony, or has been enacted by the colonial legislature, or where the courts of law have recognized and enforced the statute. The evidence of the law before the American revolution was the same as in England, but since that event the reports and elementary works of English jurists, are cited in our courts not as authorities, but by way of analogy and illustration. The law of merchants, the civil and canon laws, and laws of nations, are recognized as parts of the common law.

The law of the several states is administered as in England, through the medium of judicial and ministerial officers, acting collectively as courts, or individually as magistrates. The judicial officers are judges, justices of the peace, registers of wills, or other similar officers, exercising jurisdiction of an ecclesiastical nature for the probate of wills and issuing letters of administration. The ministerial officers are sheriffs, coroners, &c. In most of the states there are courts of errors and appeals, a supreme court, county courts of com-

mon pleas and quarter sessions, an orphan's court, and register's court. In most of the states the justices of the peace have individually a limited cognizance of civil suits, beside the authority common to all judicial officers in criminal matters.

II. The objects of Federal jurisdiction are confined to cases expressly delegated by the constitution of the United States, and all these objects are of a national character. It follows, that all the laws of the United States are *written*, viz. the constitution, the acts and treaties of the United States.

In the specified civil cases the constitution gives the Federal courts, sometimes original, sometimes appellate jurisdictions, sometimes concurrent with the state courts, and sometimes exclusive. An act of Congress declares, "The laws of the several states shall be regarded as rules of decision in trials at common law in the courts of the United States." As a part of the laws of the several states are unwritten, this of course gives common law jurisdiction in civil cases to the Federal courts. In criminal cases no such provision exists. The penal code of the United States, therefore, rests upon the constitution and the acts of Congress: it has, therefore, been anxiously asked, how it *can* embrace crimes and offences at common law. The judges of the supreme court have pronounced contrary decisions. The laws of the United States are administered through the medium of Federal courts and officers, similar to those of the individual states, sometimes admitting the aid of state courts and magistrates. The supreme court of the United States consists of a chief justice, and five associate judges; it sits at Washington. The United States are divided into five circuits. A circuit court held by a judge of the supreme court and the district judge of the state, sits twice a year in each district. Each state is a district in which a court is held four times a year by a district judge. Besides an attorney-general for the Union, the United States appoint an attorney, and a marshal with the powers of a sheriff, for each district. [*Dallas.*]

History.] In addition to what we have already said of the discovery and settlement of North-America, we shall here give a brief history of the late war with Great-Britain, with a sketch of the events which preceded and prepared the way for the revolution. This general view of the history of the United States, will serve as a suitable introduction to the particular histories of the several states.

America was originally peopled by uncivilized nations, who lived mostly by hunting and fishing. The Europeans, who first visited these shores, treating the natives as wild beasts of the forest, which have no property in the woods where they roam, planted the standard of their respective masters, where they first landed, and in their names claimed the country by *right of discovery*.* Prior to any settlement in North-America, numerous titles of this kind were acquired by the English, French, Spanish, and Dutch navigators, who came hither for the purposes of fishing and trading with the natives. Slight as such titles were, they were afterward the causes of contention be-

* As well may the New-Zealanders, who have not yet discovered Europe, fit out a ship, land on the coast of England or France, and, finding no inhabitants but poor fisherman and peasants, claim the whole country by *right of discovery*.

tween the European nations. The subjects of different princes often laid claim to the same tract of country, because both had discovered the same river or promontory, or because the extent of their respective claims was undetermined.

While the settlements in this vast uncultivated country were inconsiderable and scattered, and the trade of it confined to the bartering of a few trinkets for furs, a trade carried on by a few adventurers, the interfering of claims produced no important controversy among the settlers of the nations of Europe. But in proportion to the progress of population, and the growth of the American trade, the jealousies of the nations, which had made early discoveries and settlements on this coast, were alarmed: Ancient claims were revived; and each power took measures to extend and secure its own possessions at the expense of a rival.

By the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, the English claimed a right of cutting logwood in the Bay of Campeachy, in South-America. In the exercise of this right, the English merchants had frequent opportunities of carrying on a contraband trade with the Spanish settlements on the continent. To remedy this evil, the Spaniards resolved to annihilate a claim, which, though often acknowledged, had never been clearly ascertained. To effect this design, they captured the English vessels, which they found along the Spanish Main and many of the British subjects were doomed to work in the mines of Potosi.

The difficulties of collecting the forces of the colonies for defending, against the Indians and French, the frontiers, which were without fort or garrison for near two thousand miles, led, in 1723, to the following proposal:—"1st. That all the British colonies in North-America be united under one legal and regular establishment, having over them one supreme governour, who shall reside on the spot, and to whom the governours of each colony shall be subordinate. And,—2d. That two deputies be annually elected by the council and assembly of each province, who shall meet and form a kind of general council, and with the approbation of the governour, settle all quotas of money, men and provisions, to be raised by each province for the common defence. The governour to have a negative, but not to enact without their concurrence; and the quotas so settled to be furnished as the particular councils shall see fit." This proposal was not acceded to by the colonies. The French had at this time seized and fortified the territory on the back settlements, south of Canada, one thousand miles.

In 1739 a war commenced between England and Spain. Porto Bello was taken from the Spaniards by admiral Vernon. Commodore Anson, with a squadron of ships, sailed to the South Seas, distressed the Spanish settlements on the western shore of America, and took a galleon laden with immense riches. But in 1741, a formidable armament, destined to attack Carthagena, under the command of lord Cathcart, returned unsuccessful, with the loss of upwards of 12,000 British soldiers and seamen; and the defeat of the expedition, raised a clamour against the minister, Sir Robert Walpole, which produced a change in the administration. This change removed the

scene of war to Europe, so that America was not immediately affected by the subsequent transactions; except that Louisburg, the principal fortress of Cape Breton, was taking from the French by general Pepperell, assisted by commodore Warren and a body of New-England troops.

This war was ended in 1748, by the treaty of peace signed at Aix-la-Chapelle, by which restitution was made, on both sides, of all places taken during the war.

Peace, however, was of short duration. The French possessed Canada, and had made considerable settlements in Florida, claiming the country on both sides the Missisippi, by right of discovery. To secure and extend their claims, they established a line of forts, from Canada to Florida. They had secured the important pass at Niagara, and erected a fort at the junction of the Allegany and Monongahela rivers, called Fort Du Quesne. They took pains to secure the friendship and assistance of the natives; encroachments were made upon the English possessions, and mutual injuries succeeded. The disputes among the settlers in America, and the measures taken by the French to command all the trade of the St. Lawrence river on the north, and of the Missisippi on the south, excited a jealousy in the English nation, which soon broke forth in open war.

The next year three other expeditions were undertaken in America against the French. One was conducted by General Monckton, who had orders to drive the French from their encroachments on the province of Nova-Scotia. This expedition was attended with success. General Johnson was ordered, with a body of troops, to take possession of Crown Point, but he did not succeed. General Shirley commanded an expedition against the fort at Niagara, but lost the season by delay.

In 1755, General Braddock marched against Fort Du Quesne; but in penetrating through the wilderness, he incautiously fell into an ambuscade, and suffered a total defeat. General Braddock was killed, but the enemy not pursuing the vanquished across the river, being eager in plundering the baggage of the dead, a part of his troops were saved by flight, under the conduct of General Washington, at that time a colonel, who then began to exhibit proofs of those military talents, by which he afterwards conducted the armies of America to victory, and his country to independence.

The ill success of these expeditions, left the English settlements in America exposed to the depredations of both the French and Indians. But the war now raged in Europe and the East-Indies, and engaged the attention of both nations in those quarters.

It was not until the campaign in 1758, that affairs assumed a more favourable aspect in America. But upon a change of administration, Mr. Pitt was appointed prime minister, and the operations of war became more vigorous and successful. General Amherst was sent to take possession of Cape Breton; and, after a warm siege, the garrison of Louisburg surrendered by capitulation. General Forbes was successful in taking possession of Fort du Quesne, which the French thought fit to abandon. But General Abercrombie, who commanded the troops destined to act against the French at Crown Point and

Ticonderoga, attacked the lines at Ticonderoga, and was defeated with a terrible slaughter of his troops. After his defeat, he returned to his camp at Lake George.

The next year more effectual measures were taken to subdue the French in America. General Prideaux and Sir William Johnson began the operations of the campaign by taking the French fort near Niagara.* General Amherst took possession of the forts at Crown Point and Ticonderoga, which the French had abandoned.

But the decisive blow, which proved fatal to the French interests in America, was the defeat of the French army and the taking of Quebeck, by the brave General Wolfe. This hero was slain in the beginning of the action on the plains of Abram, and Monsieur Montcalm, the French commander, likewise lost his life. The loss of Quebeck was soon followed by the capture of Montreal, by General Amherst, and Canada has remained ever since in possession of the English.

Colonel Grant, in 1761, defeated the Cherokees in Carolina, and obliged them to sue for peace. The next year Martinico was taken by Admiral Rodney and General Monckton; and also the islands of Grenada, St. Vincents and others. The capture of these was soon followed by the surrender of the Havannah, the capital of the island of Cuba.

In 1763, a definitive treaty of peace was concluded at Paris, between Great-Britain, France and Spain; by which the English ceded to the French several islands which they had taken from them in the West-Indies, but were confirmed in the possession of all North-America on this side the Missisippi, except the island of Orleans.

But this war, however brilliant the successes and glorious the event, proved the cause of great and unexpected misfortunes to Great-Britain. Engaged with the combined powers of France and Spain, during several years, her exertions were surprising and her expense immense. To discharge the debts of the nation, the parliament was obliged to have recourse to new expedients for raising money. Previous to the last treaty in 1763, the parliament had been satisfied to raise a revenue from the American colonies by a monopoly of their trade.

At this period the British American colonies were in a state of great prosperity. Their population, commerce and wealth were advancing by regular steps. Their internal governments were conducted with a degree of steadiness, frugality and wisdom which have been seldom equalled in any country. The whole annual expense of their domestick administration amounted to less than £70,000 sterling.

It will be proper here to observe, that there were four kinds of government established in the British American colonies. The first was a charter government, by which the powers of legislation were vested in a governour, council and assembly, chosen by the people. Of this kind were the governments of Connecticut and Rhode-Island. The second was a proprietary government, in which the pro-

* General Prideaux, was killed by the bursting of a mortar, before the surrender of the French.

prietor of the province was governour; although he generally resided abroad, and administered the government by a deputy of his own appointment; the assembly only being chosen by the people. Such were the governments of Pennsylvania and Maryland; and, originally, of New-Jersey and Carolina. The third kind was that of royal government where the governour and council were appointed by the crown, and the assembly by the people. Of this kind were the governments of New-Hampshire, New-York, New-Jersey, (after the year 1702) Virginia, the Carolinas, after the resignation of the proprietors, in 1728; and Georgia. The fourth kind was that of Massachusetts, which differed from all the rest. The governour was appointed by the king. So far it was a royal government. But the members of the council were elected by the representatives of the people. The governour, however, had a right to negative a certain number, but not to fill up vacancies thus occasioned. This variety of governments created different degrees of dependence on the crown. In the royal governments, to render a law valid, it was constitutionally required that it should be ratified by the king; but the charter governments were empowered to enact laws, and no ratification by the king was necessary. It was only required that such laws should not be contrary to the laws of England. The charter of Connecticut is expressly to this purpose.

At the beginning of the last war with France, commissioners from many of the colonies had assembled at Albany, and proposed that a great council should be formed by deputies from the several colonies, which, with a general governour to be appointed by the crown, should be empowered to take measures for the common safety, and to raise money for the execution of their designs. This proposal was not relished by the British ministry; but in place of this plan, it was proposed, that the governours of the colonies, with the assistance of one or two of their council, should assemble and concert measures for the general defence, erect forts, levy troops, and draw on the treasury of England for monies that should be wanted; but the treasury to be reimbursed by a tax on the colonies, to be laid by the English parliament. To this plan, which would imply an avowal of the right of parliament to tax the colonies, the provincial assemblies objected with unshaken firmness. It seems therefore, that the British parliament, before the war, had it in contemplation to exercise the right they claimed of taxing the colonies at pleasure, without permitting them to be represented. Indeed, it is obvious that they laid hold of the alarming situation of the colonies, about the year 1754 and 1755, to force them into an acknowledgment of the right, or to the adoption of measures that might afterwards be drawn into precedent. The colonies, however, with an uncommon foresight and firmness, defeated all their attempts. The war was carried on by requisitions on the colonies for supplies of men and money, or by voluntary contributions.

But no sooner was peace concluded, than the English parliament resumed the plan of taxing the colonies; and to justify their attempts, said, that the money to be raised was to be appropriated to defray the expense of defending them in the late war.

The first attempt to raise a revenue in America appeared in the memorable stamp act, passed March 22, 1765; by which it was enacted, that certain instruments of writing, as bills, bonds, &c. should not be valid in law, unless drawn on stamped paper, on which a duty was laid. When this bill was brought in, Mr. Charles Townsend concluded a speech in its favour, with words to the following effect, "And now, will these Americans, children planted by our care, nourished up by our indulgence, till they are grown to a degree of strength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy weight of that burden which we lie under?" To which Colonel Barre replied, "They planted by your care! No, your oppressions planted them in America. They fled from tyranny to a then uncultivated and inhospitable country, where they exposed themselves to almost all the hardships to which human nature is liable; and among others to the cruelty of a savage foe, the most subtle, and I will take upon me to say, the most formidable of any people upon the face of God's earth, and yet, actuated by principles of true English liberty, they met all hardships with pleasure, compared with those who suffered in their own country, from the hands of those who should have been their friends. They They nourished up by your indulgence! They grew by your neglect of them. As soon as you began to care about them, that care was exercised in sending persons to rule them in one department and another, who were perhaps the deputies of deputies to some members of this house, sent to spy out their liberties, to misrepresent their actions, and to prey upon them; men, whose behaviour on many occasions, has caused the blood of those sons of liberty to recoil within them; men, promoted to the highest seats of justice, some, who to my knowledge were glad, by going to a foreign country, to escape being brought to the bar of a court of justice in their own. They protected by your arms! They have nobly taken up arms in your defence, have exerted a valour amidst their constant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country whose frontier was drenched in blood, while its interior parts yielded all its little savings to your emolument; and believe me, remember I this day told you so, that the same spirit of freedom which actuated that people at first, will accompany them still: But prudence forbids me to explain myself farther. God knows, I do not at this time speak from any motives of party heat; what I deliver are the genuine sentiments of my heart. However superior to me in general knowledge and experience, the respectable body of this house may be, yet I claim to know more of America than most of you, having seen and been conversant in that country. The people I believe are as truly loyal as any subjects the king has; but a people jealous of their liberties, and who will vindicate them, if ever they should be violated: But the subject is too delicate—I will say no more."

No sooner was the stamp act published in America, than it raised a general alarm. The people were filled with apprehensions at an act which they supposed to be an attack on their constitutional rights. The colonies petitioned the king and parliament for a redress of the grievance, and formed associations for the purpose of preventing the

importation and use of British manufactures, until the act should be repealed. This spirited and unanimous opposition of the Americans, produced the desired effect; and on the 18th of March, 1766, the stamp act was repealed. The news of the repeal was received in the colonies with universal joy, and the trade between them and Great-Britain was renewed on the most liberal footing.

The parliament, by repealing this act, so obnoxious to their American brethren, did not intend to lay aside the scheme of raising a revenue in the colonies, but merely to change the mode. Accordingly the next year, they passed an act, laying a certain duty on glass, tea, paper and painters' colours; articles which were much wanted, and not manufactured in America. This act kindled the resentment of the Americans, and excited a general opposition to the measure; so that parliament thought proper, in 1770, to take off these duties, except three pence a pound on tea. Yet this duty, however trifling, kept alive the jealousy of the colonists, and their opposition to parliamentary taxation continued and increased.

But it must be remembered that the inconvenience of paying the duty was not the sole nor principal cause of the opposition; it was the principle, which, once admitted, would have subjected the colonies to unlimited parliamentary taxation, without the privilege of being represented. The *right*, abstractly considered, was denied; and the smallest attempt to establish the claim by precedent, was uniformly resisted. The Americans could not be deceived as to the views of parliament; for the repeal of the stamp act was accompanied with an unequivocal declaration, "that the parliament had a right to make laws, of sufficient validity, to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever."

The colonies therefore entered into measures to encourage their own manufactures and home productions, and to retrench the use of foreign superfluities, while the importation of tea was prohibited. In the royal and proprietary governments, and in Massachusetts, the governours and people were in a state of continual warfare. Assemblies were repeatedly called, and suddenly dissolved. While sitting, the assemblies employed the time in stating grievances and framing remonstrances. To inflame these discontents, an act of parliament was passed, ordaining that the governours and judges should receive their salaries of the crown; thus making them independent of the provincial assemblies, and removable only at the pleasure of the king.

These arbitrary proceedings, with many others not here mentioned,* could not fail of producing a rupture.

On the second of March, a fray took place in Boston, near Mr. Gray's rope-walk, between a private soldier of the 29th regiment, and an inhabitant. The former was supported by his comrades, the latter by the rope makers, till several on both sides were involved in the consequences. On the fifth a more dreadful scene was presented. The soldiers, when under arms, were pressed upon, insulted and pelted by a mob armed with clubs, sticks, and snow balls covering

* See an enumeration of grievances in the "Act of Independence," and in a variety of petitions to the king and parliament.

stones. They were also dared to fire. In this situation, one of the soldiers who had received a blow, in resentment fired at the supposed aggressor. This was followed by a single discharge from six others. Three of the inhabitants were killed, and five were dangerously wounded. The town was immediately in commotion. Such was the temper, force, and number of the inhabitants, that nothing but an engagement to remove the troops out of the town, together with the advice of moderate men, prevented the townsmen from falling on the soldiers. The killed were buried in one vault, and in a most respectful manner, in order to express the indignation of the inhabitants at the slaughter of their brethren, by soldiers quartered among them, in violation of their civil liberties. Capt. Preston, who commanded the party which fired on the inhabitants, was committed to jail, and afterwards tried. The captain, and six of the men, were acquitted. Two were brought in guilty of man-slaughter. It appeared on the trial that the soldiers were abused, insulted, threatened and pelted, before they fired. It was also proved, that only seven guns were fired by the eight prisoners. These circumstances induced the jury to make a favourable verdict. The result of the trial reflected great honour on John Adams, (the late President of the United States) and Josiah Quincy, Esqrs. the council for the prisoners; and also on the integrity of the jury, who ventured to give an upright verdict, in defiance of popular opinions.

The consequences of this tragical event sunk deep in the minds of the people, and were made subservient to important purposes. The anniversary of it was observed with great solemnity for 13 years. Eloquent orators were successively employed to deliver an annual oration to preserve the remembrance of it fresh in their minds. On these occasions the blessings of liberty—the horrors of slavery—the dangers of a standing army—the rights of the colonies, and a variety of such topicks, were represented to the publick view under their most pleasing and alarming forms. These annual orations administered fuel to the fire of liberty, and kept it burning with an incessant flame.*

In 1773, the spirit of the Americans broke out into open violence. The Gaspee, an armed schooner belonging to his Britannick Majesty, had been stationed at Providence, Rhode-Island, to prevent smuggling. The vigilance of the commander irritated the inhabitants to that degree, that about two hundred armed men entered the vessel at night, compelled the officers and men to go ashore, and set fire to the schooner. A reward of five hundred pounds, offered by government for apprehending any of the persons concerned in this daring act, produced no effectual discovery.

About this time the discovery and publication of some private confidential letters, written by the royal officers in Boston, to persons in office in England, served to confirm the apprehensions of the Americans, with respect to the designs of the British government. It was now made obvious that more effectual measures would be taken to establish the supremacy of the British parliament over the colonies. The letters recommended decisive measures, and the writers were

* See Ramsay's Hist. of the Amer. Revolution, p. 90.

charged by the exasperated Americans, with betraying their trust and the people they governed.

As the resolutions of the colonies not to import or consume tea, had, in a great measure, deprived the English government of a revenue from this quarter, the parliament formed a scheme of introducing tea into America, under cover of the East-India Company. For this purpose an act was passed, enabling the company to export all sorts of teas, duty free, to any place whatever. The company departed from their usual mode of doing business, and became their own exporters. Several ships were freighted with teas, and sent to the American colonies, and factors were appointed to receive and dispose of their cargoes.

The Americans, determined to oppose the revenue system of the English parliament in every possible shape, considered the attempt of the East-India Company to evade the resolutions of the colonies, and dispose of teas in America, as an indirect mode of taxation, sanctioned by the authority of parliament. The people assembled in various places, and in the large commercial towns, took measures to prevent the landing of the teas. Committees were appointed, and armed with extensive powers to inspect merchants' books, to propose tests, and make use of other expedients to frustrate the designs of the East-India Company. The same spirit pervaded the people from New-Hampshire to Georgia. In some places the consigners of the teas were intimidated so far as to relinquish their appointments, or to enter into engagements not to act in that capacity. The cargo sent to South-Carolina was stored, the consignees being restrained from offering the tea for sale. In other provinces, the ships returned back without discharging their cargoes.

It was otherwise in Massachusetts. The tea ships designed for the supply of Boston, were consigned to the son, cousins and particular friends of governour Hutchinson. When they were called upon to resign, they answered, "That it was out of their power." The collector refused to give a clearance, unless the vessels were discharged of dutiable articles. The governour refused to give a pass for the vessels, unless properly qualified from the custom house. The governour likewise requested admiral Montague to guard the passages out of the harbour, and gave orders to suffer no vessels, coasters excepted, to pass the fortress from the town, without a pass signed by himself. From a combination of these circumstances, the return of the tea vessels from Boston was rendered impossible. The inhabitants then had no alternative, but to prevent the landing of the tea, or to suffer it to be landed, and depend on the unanimity of the people not to purchase it, or to destroy the tea, or to suffer a deep laid scheme against their sacred liberties to take effect. The first would have required incessant watching by night, as well as by day, for a period of time, the duration of which no one could compute. The second would have been visionary to childishness, by suspending the liberties of a growing country, on the self denial and discretion of every tea drinker in the province. They viewed the tea as a vehicle of an unconstitutional tax, and as inseparably associated with it. To avoid the one they resolved to destroy the other. About 17 persons, dress-

ed as Indians, repaired to the ships, broke open 342 chests of tea, and, without doing any other damage, discharged their contents into the water.*

No sooner did the news of this destruction of the tea reach Great-Britain, than the parliament determined to punish that devoted town. On the king's laying the American papers before them, a bill was brought in and passed, to "discontinue the landing and discharging, landing and shipping of goods, wares and merchandizes at the town of Boston, or within the harbour."

This act, passed March 25, 1774, and called *The Boston Port Bill*, threw the inhabitants into the greatest consternation. The town of Boston, passed a resolution, expressing their sense of this oppressive measure, and a desire that all the colonies would concur to stop all importations from Great-Britain. Most of the colonies entered into spirited resolutions, on this occasion, to unite with Massachusetts in a firm opposition to the unconstitutional measures of the parliament. The first of June, the day on which the Port Bill was to take place, was appointed to be kept as a day of humiliation, fasting and prayer throughout the colonies, to seek the divine direction and aid, in that critical and gloomy juncture of affairs.

It ought here to be obeserved, that this rational and pious custom of observing fasts in times of distress and impending danger, and of celebrating days of publick thanksgiving, after having received special tokens of divine favour, has ever prevailed in New-England since its first settlement, and in some parts of other states. These publick supplications and acknowledgments to Heaven, at the commencement of hostilities, and during the whole progress of the war, were more frequent than usual, and were attended with uncommon fervour and solemnity. They were considered by the people, as an humble appeal to Heaven for the justness of their cause, and designed to manifest their dependence on the God of Hosts for aid and success in maintaining it against their hostile brethren. The prayers and publick discourses of the clergy, who were friends to their suffering country, (and there were very few who were not) breathed the spirit of patriotism; and as their piety and integrity had generally secured to them the confidence of the people, they had great influence and success in encouraging them to engage in its defence. In this way that class of citizens aided the cause of their country; and to their pious exertions, under the Great Arbiter of human affairs, has been justly ascribed no inconsiderable share of success and victory that crowned the American arms.

During the height of the consternation and confusion which the Boston Port Bill occasioned, and at the very time when a town meeting was sitting to consider of it, General Gage, who had been appointed to the government of Massachusetts, arrived in the harbour. His arrival, however, did not allay the popular ferment, or check the progress of the measures then taking to unite the colonies in opposition to the oppressive acts of parliament. He was received with all the honours usual on such occasions.

* Ramsay's history, p. 99.

But the Port Bill was not the only act that alarmed the apprehensions of the Americans. Determined to compel the Province of Massachusetts to submit to their laws, parliament passed an act for "The better regulating government in the province of Massachusetts Bay." The object of this act was to alter the government, as it stood on the charter of king William, and to make the judges and sheriffs dependent on the king, and removable at his will and pleasure.

This act was soon followed by another, which ordained that any person, indicted for murder, or other capital offence committed in aiding the magistrates in executing the laws, might be sent by the governour, either to any other colony, or to Great-Britain, for his trial.

This was soon followed by the Quebeck Bill; which extended the bounds of that province, and granted many privileges to the Roman Catholicks. The object of this bill was, to secure the attachment of that province to the crown of England, and prevent its joining the colonies in their resistance of the laws of parliament.

But these measures did not intimidate the Americans. On the other hand they served to confirm their former apprehensions of the evil designs of government, and to unite the colonies in their opposition. A correspondence of opinion with respect to the unconstitutional acts of parliament, produced a uniformity of proceedings in the colonies. The people generally concurred in a proposition for holding a Congress, by deputation from the several colonies, in order to concert measures for the preservation of their rights. Deputies were accordingly appointed, and met at Philadelphia, on the 26th of October, 1774.

In this first congress, the proceedings were cool, deliberate and loyal; but marked with unanimity and firmness. Their first act was a declaration, or state of their claims, as to the enjoyment of all the rights of British subjects, and particularly that of taxing themselves exclusively, and of regulating the internal police of the colonies. They also drew up a petition to the king, complaining of their grievances, and praying for a repeal of the unconstitutional and oppressive acts of parliament. They signed an association to suspend the importation of British goods, and the exportation of American produce, until their grievances should be redressed. They sent an address to the inhabitants of Great-Britain, and another to the people of America; in the former of which they enumerated the oppressive steps of parliament, and called on their British brethren not to aid the ministry in enslaving their American subjects; and in the latter, they endeavoured to confirm the people in a spirited and unanimous determination to defend their constitutional rights.

In the mean time every thing in Massachusetts wore the appearance of opposition by force. A new council for the governour had been appointed by the crown. New Judges were appointed and attempted to proceed in the execution of their office. But the juries refused to be sworn under them. In some counties, the people assembled to prevent the courts from proceeding to business; and in

Berkshire they succeeded, setting an example of resistance that has since* been followed, in violation of the laws of the state.

In this situation of affairs, the day for the annual muster of the militia approached. General Gage, apprehensive of some violence, had the precaution to seize the magazines of ammunition and stores at Cambridge and Charlestown, and lodged them in Boston. This measure, with the fortifying of the neck of land which joins Boston to the main land at Roxbury, caused a universal alarm and ferment.

On this occasion, an assembly of delegates from all the towns in Suffolk county, was called; and several spirited resolutions were agreed to. These resolutions were prefaced with a declaration of allegiance; but they breathed a spirit of freedom that does honour to the delegates. They declared that the late acts of parliament, and the proceedings of General Gage, were glaring infractions of their rights and liberties, which their duty called them to defend by all lawful means.

This assembly remonstrated against the fortification of Boston Neck and against the Quebeck bill; and resolved upon a suspension of commerce, an encouragement of arts and manufactures, the holding of a provincial congress, and a submission to the measures which should be recommended by the continental congress. They recommended that the collectors of taxes should not pay any money into the treasury, without further orders; they also recommended peace and good order, as they meant to act merely upon the defensive.

In answer to their remonstrance, general Gage assured them, that he had no intention to prevent the free egress and regress of the inhabitants to and from the town of Boston, and that he would not suffer any person under his command to injure the person or property of any of his majesty's subjects.

Previous to this, a general assembly had been summoned by the governour to meet at Salem; and notwithstanding the writs had been countermanded by the governour's proclamation, on account of the violence of the times, and the resignation of several of the new counsellors, yet in defiance of the proclamation, 90 of the newly elected members met at the time and place appointed; and soon after resolved themselves into a Provincial Congress and adjourned to Concord, 19 miles from Boston, and, after choosing Mr. Hancock president, proceeded to business.

This congress addressed the governour with a rehearsal of their distresses, and took the necessary steps for defending their rights. They regulated the militia, made provision for supplying the treasury, and furnishing the people with arms; and such was the enthusiasm and union of the people, that the recommendations of the provincial congress had the force of laws.

General Gage was incensed at these measures. He declared in his answer to the address, that Britain could never harbour the black design of enslaving her subjects, and published a proclamation, in which he insinuated that such proceedings amounted to re-

* At the time of the insurrection under Shays and others, in 1786.

bellion. He also ordered barracks to be erected for the soldiers; but he found difficulty in procuring labourers, either in Boston or New-York.

In the beginning of 1775, the fishery bills were passed in parliament, by which the colonies were prohibited to trade with Great-Britain, Ireland or the West-Indies, or to take fish on the banks of Newfoundland.

In the distresses to which these acts of parliament reduced the town of Boston, the unanimity of the colonies was remarkable, in the large supplies of provision furnished by the inhabitants of different towns, from New-Hampshire to Georgia, and shipped to the relief of the sufferers.

Preparations began to be made, to oppose by force, the execution of these acts of parliament. The militia of the country were trained to the use of arms, great encouragement was given for the manufacture of gun-powder, and measures were taken to obtain all kinds of military stores.

In February, Colonel Leslie was sent with a detachment of troops from Boston, to take possession of some cannon at Salem. But the people had intelligence of the design—took up the drawbridge in that town, and prevented the troops from passing, until the cannon were secured; so that the expedition failed.

Provisions and military stores were also collected and stored in different places, particularly at Concord. General Gage, though zealous for his royal master's interest, discovered a prevailing desire after a peaceable accommodation. He wished to prevent hostilities, by depriving the inhabitants of the means necessary for carrying them on. With this view,* he determined to destroy the stores which he knew were collected for the support of a provincial army; and wishing to accomplish this without bloodshed, he took every precaution to effect it by surprise, and without alarming the country. At 11 o'clock at night, 800 grenadiers and light infantry, the flower of the royal army, embarked at the common, landed at Leechmore's Point, and marched for Concord, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Smith. Neither the secresy with which this expedition was planned, the privacy with which the troops marched out, nor an order that no inhabitant should leave Boston, were sufficient to prevent intelligence from being sent to the country militia of what was going on. About two in the morning, 130 of the Lexington militia had assembled to oppose them, but the air being chilly, and intelligence respecting the regulars uncertain, they were dismissed, with orders to appear again at the beat of drum. They collected a second time to the number of 70, between 4 and 5 o'clock in the morning, and the British regulars soon after made their appearance. Major Pitcairn, who led the advanced corps, rode up to them and called out, "Disperse, you rebels; throw down your arms and diperse." They still continued in a body, on which he advanced nearer—discharged his pistol—and

* It is believed that another object of this expedition was, to seize on the persons of Messrs. Hancock and S. Adams, who by their spirited exertions, had rendered themselves obnoxious to general Gage.

ordered his soldiers to fire. A dispersion of the militia was the consequence, but the firing of the regulars was nevertheless continued. Individuals finding they were fired upon, though dispersing, returned the fire. Three or four of the militia were killed on the green. A few more were shot after they had begun to disperse. The royal detachment proceeded on to Concord, and executed their commission. They disabled two 24 pounders—threw 500lb. of ball into rivers and wells, and broke in pieces about 60 barrels of flour. Mr. John Buterick, major of a minute regiment, not knowing what had passed at Lexington, ordered his men not to give the first fire, that they might not be the aggressors. Upon his approaching near the regulars, they fired, and killed captain Isaac Davis, and one private of the provincial minute men. The fire was returned, and a skirmish ensued. The king's troops having done their business, began their retreat towards Boston. This was conducted with expedition, for the adjacent inhabitants had assembled in arms, and began to attack them in every direction. In their return to Lexington they were exceedingly annoyed, both by those who pressed on their rear, and others who poured in from all sides, firing from behind stone walls, and such like coverts, which supplied the place of lines and redoubts. At Lexington the regulars were joined by a detachment of 900 men under lord Piercy, which had been sent out by General Gage to support lieutenant-colonel Smith. This reinforcement, having two pieces of cannon, awed the provincials, and kept them at a greater distance; but they continued a constant, though irregular and scattering fire, which did great execution. The close firings from behind the walls by good marksmen, put the regular troops in no small confusion, but they nevertheless kept up a brisk retreating fire on the militia and minute men. A little after sunset the regulars reached Bunker's Hill, worn down with excessive fatigue, having marched that day between thirty and forty miles. On the next day they crossed Charlestown ferry, to Boston.

There never were more than 400 provincials engaged at one time, and often not so many. As some tired and gave out, others came up and took their places. There was scarcely any discipline observed amongst them. Officers and privates fired when they were ready and saw a royal uniform, without waiting for the word of command. Their knowledge of the country enabled them to gain opportunities, by crossing fields and fences, and to act as flanking parties against the king's troops, who kept to the main road.

The regulars had 65 killed, 174 wounded, and 24 made prisoners. Of the provincials 49 were killed and 39 wounded and missing.

Here was spilt the *first blood* in the late war; a war which severed America from the British empire. *Lexington* opened the first scene to this great drama, which, in its progress, exhibited the most illustrious characters and events, and closed with a revolution, equally glorious for the actors, and important in its consequences to mankind.

This battle roused all America. The Provincial Congress of Massachusetts being at this time in session, voted that "An army of 30,000 men be immediately raised; that 13,600 be of their own province, and that a letter and delegate be sent to the several colonies of

New-Hampshire, Connecticut and Rhode-Island." The militia collected from all quarters, and Boston, in a few days, was besieged by twenty thousand men. A stop was put to all intercourse between the town and country, and the inhabitants were reduced to great want of provisions. General Gage promised to let the people depart, if they would deliver up their arms. The people complied; but when the general had obtained their arms, the perfidious man refused to let the people go.

This breach of faith, and the consequences that attended it, were justly and greatly complained of; and although many, at different times, were permitted to leave the town, they were obliged to leave all their effects behind; so that many who had been used to live in ease and affluence, were at once reduced to extreme indigence and misery. A circumstance peculiarly and wantonly aggravating, and which was the ground of the bitterest complaints of Congress, was, that passports were granted and retained in such a manner, as that families were broken, and the dearest connections separated; part being compelled to quit the town, and part cruelly retained against their inclination.

About the latter end of May, a great part of the reinforcements ordered from Great-Britain arrived at Boston. Three British generals, Howe, Burgoyne and Clinton, whose behaviour in the preceding war had gained them great reputation, also arrived about the same time. General Gage, thus reinforced, prepared for action with more decision; but before he proceeded to extremities, he conceived it due to ancient forms to issue a proclamation, holding forth to the inhabitants the alternative of peace or war. He therefore offered pardon in the king's name to all who should forthwith lay down their arms, and return to their respective occupations and peaceable duties, excepting only from the benefit of that pardon "SAMUEL ADAMS and JOHN HANCOCK," whose offences were said to be "of too flagitious a nature to admit of any other consideration than that of condign punishment." He also proclaimed, that not only the persons above named and excepted, but also all their adherents, associates and correspondents, should be deemed guilty of treason and rebellion, and treated accordingly. By this proclamation it was also declared, that "as the courts of judicature were shut, martial law should take place, till a due course of justice should be re-established." It was supposed that this proclamation was a prelude to hostilities, and preparations were accordingly made by the Americans. The heights of Charlestown were so situated as to make the possession of them a matter of great consequence to either of the contending parties. Orders were therefore issued, June 16th by the provincial commanders, that a detachment of a thousand men, should entrench upon Breed's Hill.* Here the Americans, between midnight and morning, with uncommon expedition and silence, threw up a small redoubt, which the British did not discover till the morning of the 17th, when they be-

* Historians, through mistake, have called the hill where the battle was fought, Bunker's Hill, which is a quarter of a mile north of Breed's or Russel's Hill, where the battle was fought.

gan an incessant firing, and continued it till afternoon. With the intrepidity of veteran soldiers the Americans bore this fire, and proceeded to finish their redoubt, and to throw up a breast work, extending eastward of it to the bottom of the hill. About noon, general Gage detached major-general Howe, and brigadier-general Pigot, with the flower of his army, in two detachments, amounting in the whole to nearly 3000 men. They landed at a point about 150 or 200 rods south-east of the redoubt, and deliberately prepared for the attack. While the troops, who first landed, were waiting for a reinforcement, the Americans on the left wing towards Mystick river, for their security, pulled up some adjoining post and rail fence, and set it down in two parallel lines near each other, and filled the space between with hay, which the day before was mowed and remained in the adjacent field. The British troops, in the mean time formed in two lines, and about 3 o'clock advanced slowly towards the Americans. The hills and steeples in Boston, and the circumjacent country, were crowded with anxious spectators of the dubious conflict. While some felt for the honour of the British troops, multitudes with a keener sensibility, felt for the liberties of a great and growing country. The attack commenced on the part of the British troops. The Americans had the precaution, in obedience to the orders of their commanding officer, to reserve their fire till their enemies had approached within 10 or 12 rods of their works. They then began a well directed and furious discharge of small arms, which mowed down their enemies in ranks, and occasioned a disorderly and precipitate retreat. Their officers rallied them with difficulty, and pushed them forward with their swords, to a second attack. They were in the same manner put to flight a second time. With still greater difficulty they were forced by general Howe, to a third attack. By this time the powder of the Americans began to fail, and their redoubt was attacked on two sides. Under these circumstances, a retreat was ordered; the left wing of the Americans, north-east of the redoubt, still continuing their fire, ignorant of what had taken place on the right, till the British had nearly surrounded them. The retreat was effected with an inconsiderable loss, considering the greater part of the distance they had to pass was completely exposed to the incessant fire of the Glasgow man-of-war and two floating batteries. In this retreat, Warren fell.

During the heat of this bloody action, by order of General Gage, Charlestown was set on fire, by a battery on Cop's Hill in Boston, and a party from the Somerset man-of-war lying in Charles river, and nearly 400 houses, including six publick buildings, were consumed, with their furniture, &c. valued by 19 men under oath, at 156,900l. specie; and 2000 persons reduced from affluence and mediocrity, to the most aggravated poverty and exile.

The number of Americans engaged in this memorable action was only 1500, under the command of Col. Prescot. There have been few battles in modern wars in which, all circumstances considered, there was a greater slaughter of men than in this short engagement. The loss of the British, as acknowledged by General Gage, amounted to 1054 men. Nineteen commissioned officers were killed, and 70

wounded. The loss of the Americans was 77 killed, 278 wounded and missing.

The death of major-general Warren, who four days before had received his commission, and who, having had no command assigned him, fought this day as a volunteer, was particularly and greatly lamented. "To the purest patriotism, and the most undaunted bravery, he added the eloquence of an accomplished orator, and the wisdom of an able statesman."

About this time a scheme was laid by a number of gentlemen in Connecticut, to take possession of Ticonderoga, where a great quantity of military stores were lodged, and which is the key to Canada. Having made the necessary preparations, and collected 270 men, chiefly *Green Mountain boys*, they rendezvoused at Castleton, where they were joined by Col. Allen, and shortly after by Col. Arnold from Cambridge, under commission from the Provincial Congress. Col. Allen commanded this volunteer party. Having arrived at Lake Champlain, opposite Ticonderoga, in the night, Cols. Allen and Arnold, with 83 men, crossed over, and at the dawn of day entered the fort without resistance, and called upon the commander who was in bed, to surrender the fort. He asked by what authority? Col. Allen replied, "I demand it in the name of the Great Jehovah and of the continental Congress." Thus the fort was captured, with its valuable stores and 48 prisoners. Crown Point was taken at the same time by Col. Warner, and possession obtained of all Lake Champlain in the course of a few days, by a few determined men.

On the 15th of June, two days before the memorable battle on Breed's Hill, the Continental Congress unanimously appointed George Washington, Esq.* a native of Virginia, to the chief command of the American army. This gentleman had been a distinguished and successful officer in the preceding war, and seemed destined by Heaven to be the saviour of his country. He accepted the appointment with a diffidence which was a proof of his modesty, his prudence and his greatness; and by his matchless skill, fortitude and perseverance, conducted America, through indescribable difficulties, to independence and peace.

General Washington, with other officers appointed by Congress, arrived at Cambridge, and took command of the American army in July. From this time, the affairs of America began to assume the appearance of a regular and general opposition to the forces of Great-Britain.

In autumn, a body of troops under the command of general Montgomery, besieged and took the garrison at St. John's, which commands the entrance into Canada. The prisoners amounted to about seven hundred. General Montgomery pursued his success, and took Montreal; and designed to push his victories to Quebeck.

A body of troops, commanded by general Arnold, was ordered to march to Canada, by the river Kennebeck through the wilderness. After suffering every hardship, and the most distressing hunger, they arrived in Canada, and were joined by general Montgomery before

* See his Life, by Judge Marshall.

Quebeck. This city, which was commanded by governour Carleton, was immediately besieged. But there being little hope of taking the town by a siege, it was determined to storm it.

The garrison of Quebeck, at this time, consisted of about 1520 men, of which 800 were militia. The American army consisted of 800 men. General Montgomery having divided his little army into four detachments, ordered two feints to be made against the upper town; one by colonel Livingston at the head of the Canadians, against St. John's Gate; the other by major Brown against Cape Diamond; reserving to himself and Col. Arnold the two principal attacks against the lower town. At 5 o'clock in the morning, general Montgomery advanced against the lower town. He passed the first barrier, and was just opening to attack the second, when he was killed, together with his aid-de-camp, Capt. M'Pherson. This so dis-spirited the men, that Col. Campbell, on whom the command devolved, thought proper to draw them off. In the mean time, Col. Arnold with 350 men, made a successful attack on another part of the town. In the attack of the first battery Col. Arnold was wounded, and was obliged to be carried off the field of battle. His party, however, commanded by Capt. Morgan, of Virginia, proceeded, and entered the town; but not being joined by the other parties, was obliged to surrender to superior force.

The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded, was about 100, and 300 were taken prisoners. Historians will do justice to the bravery of the provincial troops on this occasion.

After the defeat, Col. Arnold, who now commanded the troops, continued some months before Quebeck, although his troops were reduced in numbers, and suffered incredibly from cold and sickness.

The death of Gen. Montgomery was greatly and sincerely regretted on both sides. "His many amiable qualities had procured him an uncommon share of private affection, and his great abilities, an equal proportion of publick esteem. His name was mentioned in parliament with singular respect. The minister himself acknowledged his worth, while he reprobated the cause in which he fell. He concluded an involuntary panegyrick, by saying, "Curse on his virtues, they have undone his country."*

* General Montgomery descended from a respectable family in the North of Ireland, and was born in the year 1739. His attachment to liberty was innate, and matured by a fine education and an excellent understanding. Having married a wife, and purchased an estate in New-York, he was, from these circumstances, as well as from his natural love of freedom, and from a conviction of the justness of her cause, induced to conider himself as an American. From principle, he early embarked in her cause, and quitted the sweets of easy fortune, the enjoyment of a loved and philosophical rural life, with the highest domestick felicity, to take an active share in all the hardships and dangers that attend the soldier's life.

Before he came over to America, he had been an officer in the service of England, and had successfully fought her battles with the immortal Wolfe at Quebeck, in the war of 1756, on the very spot, where, when fighting under the standard of freedom, he was doomed to fall in arms against her.

About this time, the large and flourishing town of Norfolk, in Virginia, was wantonly burnt by order of Lord Dunmore, the then royal governour of that province.

General Gage went to England in September, and was succeeded in the command by general Howe.

Falmouth, a considerable town in the province of Maine, in Massachusetts, shared the fate of Norfolk; being laid in ashes by order of the British admiral.

The British king entered into treaties with some of the German princes for about fourteen thousand men, who were to be sent to America the next year to assist in subduing the colonies. The parliament also passed an act, forbidding all intercourse with America; and while they repealed the Boston port and fishery bills, they declared all American property on the high seas, forfeited to the captors.

Measures were taken to annoy the enemy in Boston. For this purpose batteries were opened on several hills, from whence shot and bombs were thrown into the town. But the batteries which were opened on Dorchester Point had the best effect, and soon obliged general Howe to abandon the town. In March, 1776, the British troops embarked for Halifax, and general Washington entered Boston in triumph.

In the ensuing summer, a small squadron of ships, commanded by Sir Peter Parker, and a body of troops under the generals Clinton and Cornwallis, attempted to take Charleston, the capital of South-Carolina. The ships made a violent attack upon the fort on Sullivan's Island, but were repulsed with great loss, and the expedition was abandoned.

In July, Congress published their declaration of independence, which separated America from Great-Britain. This great event took place two hundred and eighty-four years after the discovery of America by Columbus—one hundred and sixty-six from the first effectual settlement in Virginia, and one hundred and fifty-six from the first settlement of Plymouth in Massachusetts, which were the earliest English settlements in America.

Just after this declaration, general Howe, with a powerful force, arrived near New-York, and landed his troops on Staten Island. General Washington was in New-York with about thirteen thousand men, who were encamped either in the city or the neighbouring fortifications.

The operations of the British began by the action on Long-Island, in the month of August. The American generals Sullivan and lord Sterling, with a large body of men, were made prisoners. The night after the engagement, a retreat was ordered and executed with such silence, that the Americans left the island without alarming their enemies, and without loss.

In September the city of New-York was, in a cowardly manner, abandoned by the American army, and taken by the British.

On the day after this shameful flight of part of the American army, a skirmish took place between two battalions of light infantry and Highlanders commanded by brigadier Leslie, and some detachments from the American army, under the command of lieutenant-colonel

Knowlton of Connecticut, and major Leitch of Virginia. The Col. was killed, and the major badly wounded. Their men behaved with great bravery, and fairly beat their adversaries from the field. Most of these were the same men who had disgraced themselves the day before by running away. Struck with a sense of shame for their late misbehaviour, they had offered themselves as volunteers, and requested the commander in chief to give them an opportunity to retrieve their honour. Their good conduct, at this second engagement, proved an antidote to the poison of their example on the preceding day. It demonstrated that the Americans only wanted resolution and good officers to be on a footing with the British, and inspired them with hopes, that a little more experience would enable them to assume, not only the name and garb, but the spirit and firmness of soldiers.

In November, Fort Washington on York Island was taken and more than two thousand Americans made prisoners. Fort Lee, opposite to Fort Washington on the Jersey shore was soon after taken, but the garrison escaped.

About the same time, general Clinton was sent with a body of troops to take possession of Rhode-Island, and succeeded. In addition to all these losses and defeats, the American army suffered by desertion, and more by sickness, which was epidemick and very mortal.

The northern army at Ticonderoga was in a disagreeable situation, particularly after the battle on lake Champlain, in which the American force, consisting of a few light vessels, under the command of generals Arnold and Waterbury, was totally dispersed. But general Carleton, instead of pursuing his victory, landed at Crown Point, reconnoitred our posts at Ticonderoga and Mount Independence, and returned to winter quarters in Canada.

The American army might now be said to be no more. All that now remained of an army, which at the opening of the campaign amounted to at least twenty-five thousand men, did not now exceed three thousand. The term of their engagements being expired, they returned in large bodies, to their families and friends; the few, who, from personal attachment, local circumstances, or superior perseverance and bravery, continued with the generals Washington and Lee, were too inconsiderable to appear formidable in the view of a powerful and victorious enemy.

In this alarming and critical situation of affairs, general Lee, through an imprudent carelessness, which ill became a man in his important station, was captured by a party of British light-horse, commanded by Col. Harcourt. This unfortunate circumstance gave a severe shock to the remaining hopes of the little army, and rendered their situation truly distressing.

While these things were transacting in New-Jersey, general Washington, far from being discouraged by the loss of general Lee, and always ready to improve every advantage to raise the drooping spirits of his handful of men, had made a stand on the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware, where he had collected his scattered forces, and called in the assistance of the Pennsylvania militia.

On the evening of Christmas day, (1776) general Washington made arrangments for recrossing the Delaware in three divisions ; at M. Konkey's ferry, at Trenton ferry, and at or near Bordenton. The troops which were to have crossed at the two last places, were commanded by generals Ewing and Cadwallader ; they made every exertion to get over, but the quantity of ice was so great, that they could not effect their purpose. The main body, which was commanded by general Washington, crossed at M. Konkey's ferry, but the ice in the river retarded their passage so long, that it was three o'clock in the morning before the artillery could be got over. On their landing at Jersey, they were formed into two divisions, commanded by generals Sullivan and Green, who had under their command brigadiers Lord Sterling, Mercer and St. Clair : one of these divisions was ordered to proceed on the lower, or river road, the other on the upper or Pennington road. Col. Stark, with some light troops, was also directed to advance near to the river, and possess himself of that part of the town which is beyond the bridge. The divisions having nearly the same distance to march, were ordered immediately, on forcing the out guards, to push directly into Trenton, that they might charge the enemy before they had time to form. Though they marched different roads, yet they arrived at the enemy's advanced post, within three minutes of each other. The out guards of the Hessian troops soon fell back, but kept up a constant retreating fire. Their main body being hard pressed by the Americans, who had already got possession of half their artillery, attempted to file off by a road leading towards Princeton, but were checked by a body of troops thrown in their way. Finding they were surrounded, they laid down their arms. The number which submitted, was 23 officers and 886 men. Between 30 and 40 of the Hessians were killed and wounded. Col. Rahl was among the former, and seven of his officers among the latter. Capt. Washington, of the Virginia troops, and 5 or 6 of the Americans were wounded. Two were killed, and two or three were frozen to death. The detachment in Trenton consisted of the regiments of Rahl, Losberg and Kniphausen, amounting in the whole to about 1500 men, and a troop of British light-horse. All these were killed or captured, except about 600, who escaped by the road leading to Bordenton.

The address in planning and executing this enterprize, reflected the highest honour on the commander, and the success revived the desponding hopes of America. The loss of general Mercer, a gallant officer at Princeton, was the principal circumstance that allayed the joys of victory.

The following year, 1777, was distinguished by very memorable events, in favour of America. On the opening of the campaign, governour Tryon was sent with a body of troops to destroy the stores at Danbury in Connecticut. This plan was executed, and the town mostly burnt. The enemy suffered in their retreat, and the Americans lost general Wooster, a brave and experienced officer.

General Prescot was taken from his quarters on Rhode-Island, by the address and enterprize of Col. Barton, and conveyed prisoner to the continent.

General Burgoyne, who commanded the northern British army, took possession of Ticonderoga, which had been abandoned by the Americans. He pushed his successes, crossed Lake George and encamped upon the banks of the Hudson, near Saratoga. His progress however was checked, by the defeat of Col. Baum, near Pennington, in which the undisciplined militia, under general Stark, displayed unexampled bravery, and captured almost the whole detachment. The militia assembled from all parts of New-England, to stop the progress of general Burgoyne.

These, with the regular troops, formed a respectable army, commanded by general Gates. After two severe actions, in which the generals Lincoln and Arnold behaved with uncommon gallantry, and were wounded, general Burgoyne found himself enclosed with brave troops, and was forced to surrender his whole army, amounting to five thousand seven hundred and fifty-two men, into the hands of the Americans.* This memorable event happened on the 17th of October, 1777; and diffused a universal joy over America, and laid a foundation for the treaty with France.

But before these transactions, the main body of the British forces had embarked at New-York, sailed up the Chesapeak, and landed at the Head of Elk River. The army soon began their march for Philadelphia. General Washington had determined to oppose them, and for this purpose made a stand, first at Red Clay Creek, and then upon the heights, near Brandywine Creek. Here the armies engaged, and the Americans were overpowered, and suffered great loss. The enemy soon pursued their march, and took possession of Philadelphia, towards the close of September.

Not long after, the two armies were again engaged at Germantown, and in the beginning of the action the Americans had the advantage; but the fortune of the day was turned in favour of the British, by three unlucky events; the attack on Mr. Chew's house; the misconducting of the left division under Gen. Greene, by false or ignorant guides, so that they arrived 40 minutes later than the time specified; and the firing of one part of the American troops on another, occasioned by a thick fog. Gen. Howe was, however, so alarmed as to order the bridge of boats to be prepared anew for an immediate flight. Both sides suffered considerable losses; on the side of the Americans was general Nash.

In an attack upon the forts at Mud Island and Red Bank, the Hessians were unsuccessful, and their commander, Col. Donop, killed. The British also lost the Augusta, a ship of the line. But the forts were afterwards taken, and the navigation of the Delaware opened. Gen. Washington was reinforced with a part of the troops which had composed the northern army under General Gates; and both armies retired to winter quarters.

In October, the same month in which Gen. Burgoyne was taken at Saratoga, Gen. Vaughan, with a small fleet, sailed up Hudson's river, and wantonly burnt Kingston, a beautiful Dutch settlement, on the west side of the river.

* When general Burgoyne left Canada, his army consisted of 10,000 men.

The beginning of the next year, 1778, was distinguished by a treaty of alliance between France and America. When the English ministry were informed that this treaty was on foot, they dispatched commissioners to America, to attempt a reconciliation. But their offers were of such a nature as could not be honourably accepted by America. Early in the spring, Count de Estaing, with a fleet of fifteen sail of the line, was sent by the court of France to assist America.

General Howe left the army, and returned to England; the command then devolved upon Sir Henry Clinton.

In June the British army left Philadelphia, and marched for New-York. On their march they were annoyed by the Americans; and at Monmouth a very regular action took place, between part of the armies; the enemy were repulsed with great loss. General Lee, for his misconduct that day, was suspended, and was never afterwards permitted to join the army.

General Lee's conduct, at several times before this, had been very suspicious. In December, 1776, he lay at Chatham, about eleven miles from Elizabethtown, with a brigade of troops, when a great quantity of baggage was stored at Elizabethtown, under a guard of only five hundred Hessians. General Lee was apprised of this, and might have surprised the guard and taken the baggage. But he neglected the opportunity, and after several marches and counter-marches between Troy, Chatham, and Morristown, he took up his quarters at or near White's tavern, where he was surprised and taken prisoner by a party of the British horse. He was heard to say repeatedly, that general Washington would ruin a fine army. It was suspected that he had designs to supplant the general, and his friends attempted to place him at the head of the army. General Washington's prudent delays and cautious movements afforded general Lee's friends many opportunities to spread reports unfavourable to his character. It was insinuated, with some success, that general Washington wanted courage and abilities. Reports of this kind, at one time rendered general Lee very popular, and it is supposed he wished to frustrate general Washington's plans, in order to increase the suspicions already entertained of his generalship, and turn the publick clamour in his own favour. His conduct at Monmouth was, by some, supposed to have proceeded from such a design; for he commanded the flower of the American army, and was not destitute of courage.

In August, general Sullivan, with a large body of troops, landed on Rhode-Island, and successfully fought the enemy; but not being supported by the French fleet, as was expected, he was obliged to leave the island. Soon after, the stores and shipping at Bedford in Massachusetts were burnt by a party of the British troops. The same year, Savannah, the capital of Georgia, was taken by the British, under the command of colonel Campbell.

In the following year, (1779) general Lincoln was appointed to the command of the southern army.

Governour Tryon and Sir George Collier made an incursion into Connecticut, and burnt, with wanton barbarity, the towns of Fairfield

and Norwalk. But the American arms were crowned with success, in a bold attack upon Stony Point, which was surprised and taken by the brave general Wayne, in the night of the 15th of July. Five hundred men were made prisoners, with little loss on either side.

A party of British forces attempted, this summer, to build a fort on Penobscot river, for the purpose of cutting timber in the neighbouring forest. A plan was laid in Massachusetts to dislodge them, and a considerable fleet collected for the purpose. But the plan failed of success, and the whole marine force fell into the hands of the British, except some vessels which were burnt by the Americans themselves.

In October, general Lincoln and Count de Estaing made an assault upon Savannah; but they were repulsed with considerable loss. In this action, the celebrated Polish count Polaski, who had acquired the reputation of a brave soldier, was mortally wounded.

In this summer, general Sullivan marched with a body of troops, into the Indian country, in the western part of New-York state, and burnt and destroyed all their provisions and settlements that fell in his way.

On the opening of the campaign, the next year, (1780) the British troops left Rhode-Island. An expedition under general Clinton and lord Cornwallis, was undertaken against Charleston, South-Carolina, where general Lincoln commanded. This town, after a close siege of about six weeks, was surrendered to the British commander; and general Lincoln, and the whole American garrison, were made prisoners.

General Gates was appointed to command in the southern department, and another army collected. In August, lord Cornwallis attacked the American troops at Camden, in South-Carolina, and routed them with considerable loss. He afterwards marched through the southern states, and supposed them entirely subdued.

The same summer, the British troops made frequent incursions from New-York into the Jersies, ravaging and plundering the country.

In July, a French fleet, under Monsieur de Ternay, with a body of land forces, commanded by Count de Rochambeau, arrived Rhode-Island, to the great joy of the Americans.

This year was also distinguished by the infamous treason of general Arnold. General Washington having some business to transact at Weathersfield in Connecticut, left Arnold to command the important post of West Point, which guards a pass in Hudson's River, about sixty miles from New-York. Arnold's conduct in the city of Philadelphia, the preceding winter, had been censured; and the treatment he received in consequence, had given him offence.

He determined to take revenge; and for this purpose, he entered into a negociation with Sir Henry Clinton, to deliver West Point and the army into the hands of the British. While general Washington was absent, he dismounted the cannon in some of the forts, and took other steps to render the taking of the post easy for the enemy.

But by a providential discovery, the whole plan was defeated. Major Andre, adjutant-general of the British army, a brave officer, who

had been sent up the river as a spy, to concert the plan of operations with Arnold, was taken, condemned by a court-martial, and executed. Arnold made his escape, by getting on board the Vulture, a British vessel which lay in the river. His conduct has stamped him with infamy; and, like all traitors, he is despised by all mankind. The name of Benedict Arnold has become proverbially contemptible. General Washington arrived in camp just after Arnold made his escape, and restored order in the garrison.

After the defeat of general Gates in Carolina, general Greene was appointed to command in the southern department.* From this period, things in that quarter wore a more favourable aspect. Colonel Tarleton, the active commander of the British legion, was defeated by general Morgan, the intrepid commander of the riflemen.

After a variety of movements, the two armies met at Guilford, in Carolina. Here was one of the best fought actions during the war. General Greene and lord Cornwallis exerted themselves at the head of their respective armies; and although the Americans were obliged to retire from the field, yet the British army suffered an immense loss, and could not pursue the victory. The action happened on the 15th of March, 1781.

In the spring, Arnold, the traitor, who was made a brigadier-general in the British service, with a small number of troops, sailed for Virginia, and plundered the country. This called the attention of the French fleet to that quarter, and a naval engagement took place between the English and French, in which some of the English ships were much damaged, and one entirely disabled.

After the battle of Guilford, general Greene moved towards South-Carolina, to drive the British from their posts in that state. Here lord Rawdon obtained an inconsiderable advantage over the Americans near Camden. But general Greene more than recovered this

* General Greene was born at Warwick, in the state of Rhode-Island, about the year 1741, of reputable parents, belonging to the society of *Friends*. He was endowed with an uncommon degree of judgment and penetration; his disposition was benevolent, and his manners affable. At an early period of life, he was chosen a member of the assembly, and he discharged his trust to the entire satisfaction of his constituents.

After the battle of Lexington, three regiments of troops were raised in Rhode Island, and the command of them given to Mr. Greene, who was nominated a brigadier-general. His merit and abilities, both in council and in the field, were soon noticed by Gen. Washington, and in August, 1776, he was appointed major-general. His action with the British troops at Eutaw Springs was one of the best conducted and most successful engagements that took place during the war. For this, general Greene was honoured by Congress with a British standard and a gold medal. As a reward for his particular services in the southern department, the state of Georgia presented him with a large and valuable tract of land on an island near Savannah.

After the war, he returned to his native state. The contentions and bad policy of that state induced him to leave it and retire to his estate in Georgia.

He removed his family in October, 1785; but in June the next summer, the extreme heat, and the fatigue of a walk, brought on a disorder that put a period to his life, on the 19th of the same month. He lived universally beloved and respected, and his death was as universally lamented.

His body was interred in Savannah, and the funeral procession attended by the Cincinnati.

disadvantage, by the brilliant and successful action at the Eutaw Springs; where general Marion distinguished himself, and the brave Col. Washington was wounded and taken prisoner.

Lord Cornwallis, finding general Greene successful in Carolina, marched to Virginia, collected his forces, and fortified himself in Yorktown. In the mean time Arnold made an incursion into Connecticut, burnt a part of New-London, took Fort Griswold by storm, and put the garrison to the sword. The garrison consisted chiefly of men collected from the little town of Groton, which, by the savage cruelty of the British officer who commanded the attack, lost, in one hour, almost all its heads of families. The brave Col. Ledyard, who commanded the fort, was slain with his own sword after he had surrendered.

The Marquis de la Fayette, a brave and generous nobleman, whose services command the gratitude of Americans, had been dispatched with about 2000 light infantry, from the main army, to watch the motions of lord Cornwallis in Virginia. He prosecuted this expedition with the greatest military ability. Although his force was much inferior to that of the enemy, he obliged them to leave Richmond and Williamsburg, and to seek protection under their shipping.

About the last of August, Count de Grasse arrived in the Chesapeak, and blocked up the British troops at Yorktown. Admiral Greaves, with a British fleet, appeared off the Capes, and an action succeeded; but it was not decisive.

General Washington had before this time moved the main body of his army, together with the French troops, to the southward; and as soon as he heard of the arrival of the French fleet in the Chesapeak, he made rapid marches to the head of Elk, where embarking, the troops soon arrived at Yorktown.

A close siege immediately commenced, and was carried on with such vigour, by the combined forces of America and France, that lord Cornwallis was obliged to surrender. This glorious event, which took place on the 19th of October, 1781, decided the contest in favour of America; and laid the foundation of a general peace.

A few months after the surrender of Cornwallis, the British evacuated all their posts in South-Carolina and Georgia, and retired to the main army in New-York.

The next spring, (1782) Sir Guy Carlton arrived in New-York, and took the command of the British army in America. Immediately on his arrival, he acquainted general Washington and Congress that negociations for peace had commenced at Paris.

On the 30th of November, 1782, the provisional articles of peace and reconciliation, between Great-Britain and the American States, were signed at Paris, by Dr. Franklin,* Mr. Adams, Mr. Jay,† and Mr. Laurens, on the part of the United States, and by Mr. Oswald

* See his life written by himself.

† John Jay, Esq. is a descendant of one of the French Protestant emigrants, who came to America, in consequence of the revocation of the Edict of Nantz, in 1685. It is remarkable, that among the descendants of these emigrants, some of whom settled in New-York, and some in Boston, there have been the follow-

on the part of Great-Britain. These articles formed the basis of the definitive treaty, which was concluded September 3d, 1783, and signed by Dr. Franklin, Mr. Adams and Mr. Jay, on the one part, and David Hartly on the other. [*Franklin's Life, Vol. I. p.* 288.]

Thus ended a long and arduous conflict, in which Great-Britain expended near a hundred millions of money, with a hundred thousand lives, and won nothing. America endured every cruelty and distress from her enemies; lost many lives and much treasure; but delivered herself from a foreign dominion, and gained a rank among the nations of the earth.

Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States on the 19th of April, 1782; Sweden, February 5th, 1783. "On the 3d of April, 1783, a treaty of amity and commerce between the United States and Sweden was concluded at Paris, by Dr. Franklin and the Count Von Krutz." "A similar treaty with Prussia was concluded in 1785."* Another with Denmark, the 15th of February; with Spain, in March, and with Russia, in July, 1783.

No sooner was peace restored by the definitive treaty, and the British troops withdrawn from the country, than the United States began to experience the defects of their general government. While an enemy was in the country, fear, which had first impelled the colonies to associate in mutual defence, continued to operate as a band of political union. It gave to the resolutions and recommendations of Congress the force of laws, and generally commanded a ready acquiescence on the part of the state legislatures. Articles of confederation and perpetual union had been framed in Congress, and submitted to the consideration of the states, in the year 1778. Some of the states immediately acceded to them; but others, which had not unappropriated lands, hesitated to subscribe a compact, which would give an advantage to the states which possessed large tracts of unlocated lands, and were thus capable of a great superiority in wealth and population. All objections, however, had been overcome, and by the accession of Maryland, in March, 1781, the articles of confederation were ratified, as the frame of government for the United States.

These articles, however, were framed during the rage of war, when a principle of common safety supplied the place of a coercive power in government; by men who could have had no experience in the art of governing an extensive country, and under circumstances the most critical and embarrassing. To have offered to the people, at that time, a system of government armed with the powers necessary to regulate and controul the contending interests of thirteen states, and the possessions of millions of people, might have raised a jealousy

ing eminent characters; James Bowdoin, Esq. who had been governour of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, and at his death was President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences; Henry Laurens, Esq. who has been President of Congress, and Ambassador to a foreign court. Elias Boudinot, Esq. who has been President of Congress, and for many years a Representative; and John Jay, Esq. who has been President of Congress, Ambassador to a foreign court, Chief Justice of the American States, and late Governour of the state of New-York.

* Franklin's Life, Vol. I. p. 288.

between the states or in the minds of the people at large, that would have weakened the operations of war, and perhaps have rendered a union impracticable. Hence the numerous defects of the confederation.

On the conclusion of peace, these defects began to be felt. Each state assumed the right of disputing the propriety of the resolutions of Congress, and the interest of an individual state was placed in opposition to the common inserest of the union. In addition to this source of division, a jealousy of the powers of Congress began to be excited in the minds of the people,

The jealousy of the privileges of freemen had been roused by the oppressive act of the British parliament; and no sooner had the danger from this quarter ceased, than the fears of the people changed their object, and were turned against their own rulers.

In this situation, there were not wanting men of industry and talents, who had been enemies to the revolution, and who embraced the opportunity, to multiply the apprehensions of people and increase the popular discontents. A remarkable instance of this happened in Connecticut. As soon as the tumults of war had subsided, an attempt was made to convince the people, that the act of Congress passed in 1778, granting to the officers of the army half pay for life, was highly unjust and tyrannical; and that it was but the first step towards the establishment of pensions and an uncontrollable despotism. The act of Congress, passed in 1783, commuting half pay for life, for five years full pay, was designed to appease the apprehensions of the people, and to convince them that this gratuity was intended merely to indemnify the officers for their losses by the depreciation of the paper currency, and not to establish a precedent for the granting of pensions. This act however did not satisfy the people, who supposed that the officers had been generally indemnified for the loss of their pay, by the grants made them from time to time by the legislatures of the several states. Besides, the act, while it gave five years full pay to the officers, allowed but one year's pay to the privates; a distinction which had great influence in exciting and continuing the popular ferment, and one that turned a large share of the publick rage against the officers themselves.

The moment an alarm was raised respecting this act of Congress, the enemies of our independence became active in blowing up the flame, by spreading reports unfavourable to the general government, and tending to create publick dissensions. Newspapers, in some parts of the country, were filled with inflammatory publications; while false reports and groundless insinuations were industriously circulated to the prejudice of Congress and the officers of the late army. Among a people feelingly alive to every thing that could affect the rights for which they had been contending, these reports could not fail of having a powerful effect; the clamour soon became general; the officers of the army, it was believed, had attempted to raise their fortunes on the distresses of their fellow citizens, and Congress become the tyrants of their country.

Connecticut was the seat of this uneasiness; although other states were much agitated on the occasion. But the inhabitants of that

state, accustomed to order and a due subordination to the laws, did not proceed to outrages; they took their usual mode of collecting the sense of the state—assembled in town meetings—appointed committees to meet in convention, and consult what measures should be adopted to procure a redress of their grievances. In this covention which was held at Middletown, some nugatory resolves were passed, expressing the disapprobation of the half pay act, and the subsequent commutation of the grant for five years whole pay. The same spirit also discovered itself in the assembly at their October session, 1783. A remonstrance against the acts in favour of the officers was framed in the house of representatives, and notwithstanding the upper house refused to concur in the measure, it was sent to congress, already mentioned. During this situation of affairs, the publick odium against the officers was augmented by another circumstance. The officers, just before the disbanding of the army, had formed a society, called by the name of the Cincinnati, after the Roman Dictator, Cincinnatus.

Whatever were the real views of the framers of this institution, its design was generally understood to be harmless and honourable. The ostensible views of the society could not however screen it from popular jealousy. A spirited pamphlet appeared in South-Carolina, the avowed production of Mr. Burke, one of the judges of the supreme court in that state, in which the author attempted to prove that the principles on which the society was formed, would, in process of time, originate and establish an order of nobility in this country, which would be repugnant to the genius of our republican governments, and dangerous to liberty. This pamphlet appeared in Connecticut, during the commotions raised by the half pay and commutation acts, and contributed not a little to spread the flame of opposition.

Notwithstanding the discontents of the people were general, and ready to burst forth into sedition, yet men of information, viz. the officers of government, the clergy, and persons of liberal education, were mostly opposed to the unconstitutional steps taken by the committees and convention at Middletown. They supported the propriety of the measures of Congress, both by conversation and writing, proved that such grants to the army were necessary to keep the troops together, and that the expense would not be enormous nor oppressive. During the close of the year 1783, every possible exertion was made to enlighten the people, and such was the effect of the arguments used by the minority, that in the beginning of the following year the opposition subsided, the committees were dismissed, and tranquility restored to the state. In May, the legislature were able to carry several measures which before had been extremely unpopular. An act was passed granting the impost of five per cent. to Congress; another giving great encouragement to commerce; and several towns were incorporated with extensive privileges, for the purpose of regulating the exports of the state, and facilitating the collection of debts.

The opposition to the congressional acts in favour of the officers, and to the order of the Cincinnati, did not rise to the same pitch in

the other states as in Connecticut ; yet it produced much disturbance in Massachusetts, and some others. Jealousy of power had been universally spread among the people of the United States. The destruction of the old forms of government, and the licentiousness of war, had in a great measure, broken their habits of obedience ; their passions had been inflamed by the cry of despotism ; and, like centinels, who have been suddenly surprised by the approach of an enemy, the rustling of a leaf was sufficient to give them an alarm. This spirit of jealousy operated with other causes to relax the energy of federal operations.

During the war, vast sums of paper currency had been emitted by Congress, and large quantities of specie had been introduced, towards the close of the war, by the French army, and the Spanish trade. This plenty of money enabled the states to comply with the first requisitions of Congress ; so that during two or three years, the federal treasury was, in some measure, supplied. But when the danger of war had ceased, and the vast importations of foreign goods had lessened the quantity of circulating specie, the states began to be very remiss in furnishing their proportion of monies. The annihilation of the credit of the paper bills had totally stopped their circulation, and the specie was leaving the country in cargoes, for remittances to Great-Britain ; still the luxurious habits of the people, contracted during the war, called for new supplies of goods ; and private gratification seconded the narrow policy of state interest in defeating the operations of the general government.

Thus the revenues of Congress were annually diminishing ; some of the states wholly neglecting to make provision for paying the interest of the national debt ; others making but a partial provision, until the scanty supplies received from a few of the richest states, would hardly satisfy the demands of the civil list.

This weakness of the federal government, in conjunction with the flood of certificates or publick securities, which Congress could neither fund nor pay, occasioned them to depreciate to a very inconsiderable value. The officers and soldiers of the late army, and those who furnished supplies for publick exigencies, were obliged to receive for wages these certificates, or promissory notes, which passed at a fifth, an eighth or a tenth of their nominal value ; being thus deprived at once of the greatest part of the reward due for their services. Some indeed profited by speculations in these evidences of the publick debt ; but such as were under a necessity of parting with them, were robbed of that support which they had a right to expect and demand from their countrymen.

Pennsylvania indeed made provision for paying the interest of her debts, both state and federal ; assuming her supposed proportion of the continental debt, and giving the creditors her own state notes in exchange for those of the United States. The resources of that state are immense, but she was not able to make punctual payments, even in a depreciated paper currency.

Massachusetts, in her zeal to comply fully with the requisitions of Congress, and satisfy the demands of her own creditors, laid a heavy tax upon the people. This was the immediate cause of the rebellion

in that state, in 1786. But a heavy debt lying on the state, added to burdens of the same nature, upon almost every corporation within it; a decline, or rather an extinction of publick credit; a relaxation and corruption of manners, and a free use of foreign luxuries; a decay of trade and manufactures, with a prevailing scarcity of money; and, above all, individuals involved in debt to each other;—these were the real, though more remote causes of the insurrection. It was the tax which the people were required to pay, that caused them to feel the evils which we have enumerated: This called forth all their other grievances; and the first act of violence committed, was the burning or destroying of the tax-bill. This sedition threw the state into a convulsion which lasted about a year; courts of justice were violently obstructed; the collection of debts was suspended; and a body of armed troops under the command of general Lincoln, was employed, during the winter of 1786, to disperse the insurgents. Yet so numerous were the latter in the counties of Worcester, Hampshire and Berkshire, and so obstinately combined to oppose the execution of law by force, that the governour and council of the state thought proper not to entrust general Lincoln with military powers, except to act on the defensive, and to repel force with force, in case the insurgents should attack him. The leaders of the rebels, however, were not men of talents; they were desperate, but without fortitude; and while they were supported with a superior force, they appeared to be impressed with that consciousness of guilt, which awes the most daring wretch, and makes him shrink from his purpose. This appears by the conduct of a large party of the rebels before the magazine at Springfield; where general Shepard, with a small guard, was stationed to protect the continental stores. The insurgents appeared upon the plain, with a vast superiority of numbers, but a few shot from the artillery made the multitude retreat in disorder, with the loss of four men. This spirited conduct of general Shepard, with the industry, perseverance and prudent firmness of general Lincoln, dispersed the rebels—drove the leaders from the state, and restored tranquillity. An act of indemnity was passed in the legislature for all the insurgents, except a few of the leaders, on condition they should become peaceable subjects, and take the oath of allegiance. The leaders afterwards petitioned for pardon, which, from motives of policy, was granted by the legislature.*

But the loss of publick credit, popular disturbances and insurrections, were not the only evils which were generated by the peculiar circumstances of the times. The emissions of bills of credit and tender laws were added to the black catalogue of political disorders.

The expedient of supplying the deficiencies of specie, by emissions of paper bills, was adopted very early in the colonies. The expedient was obvious, and produced good effects. In a new country, where population is rapid, and the value of lands increasing, the farmer finds an advantage in paying legal interest for money; for if he can pay the interest by his profits, the increasing value of his lands will in a few years discharge the principal.

* See a well written and impartial History of this Rebellion, by the late George Richards Minot, Esq.

In no colony was this advantage more sensibly experienced than in Pennsylvania. The emigrations to that province were numerous; the natural population rapid; and these circumstances combined, advanced the value of real property to an astonishing degree. As the first settlers there, as well as in other provinces, were poor, the purchase of a few foreign articles drained them of specie. Indeed for many years the balance of trade must have necessarily been greatly against the colonies.

But bills of credit, emitted by the state and loaned to the industrious inhabitants, supplied the want of specie, and enabled the farmer to purchase stock. These bills were generally a legal tender in all colonial or private contracts, and the sums issued did not generally exceed the quantity requisite for a medium of trade; they retained their full nominal value in the purchase of commodities. But as they were not received by the British merchants, in payment of their goods, there was a great demand for specie and bills, which occasioned the latter at various times to appreciate. Thus was introduced a difference between the English sterling money and the currencies of the colonies, which remains to this day.*

The advantages the colonies had derived from bills of credit, under the British government, suggested to Congress, in 1775, the idea of issuing bills for the purpose of carrying on the war. And this was perhaps their only expedient. Money could not be raised by taxation; it could not be borrowed. The first emissions had no other effect upon the medium of commerce, than to drive the specie from circulation. But when the paper substituted for specie, had, by repeated emissions, augmented the sum in circulation much beyond the usual sum of specie, the bills began to lose their value. The depreciation continued in proportion to the sums emitted, until seventy, and even one hundred and fifty nominal paper dollars, were hardly an equivalent for one Spanish milled dollar. Still, from the year 1775 to 1781, this depreciating paper currency was almost the only medium of trade. It supplied the place of specie, and enabled Congress to support a numerous army; until the sum in circulation amounted to two hundred millions of dollars. But about the year 1780, specie began to be plentiful, being introduced by the French army, a private trade with the Spanish islands, and an illicit intercourse with the British garrison at New-York. This circumstance accelerated the depreciation of paper bills, until their value had sunk almost to nothing. In 1781, the merchants and brokers in the southern states, apprehensive of the approaching fate of the currency, pushed immense quantities of it suddenly into New-England, made vast purchases of goods in Boston; and instantly the bills vanished from circulation.

The whole history of this continental paper is a history of publick and private frauds. Old specie debts were often paid in a depreciated currency; and even new contracts for a few weeks or days were

* A Dollar in Sterling money, is 4/6. But the price of a Dollar rose in New-England currency to 6/. in New-York to 8/. in New-Jersey, Pennsylvania and Maryland to 7/6. in Virginia to 6/. in North Carolina to 8/. in South Carolina and Georgia to 4/8. This difference, originating between paper and specie, or bills, continued afterwards to exist in the nominal estimation of gold and silver.

often discharged with a small part of the value received. From this plenty and fluctuating state of the medium, sprung hosts of speculators and itinerant traders, who left their honest occupations for the prospect of immense gains, in a fraudulent business, that depended on no fixed principles, and the profits of which could be reduced to no certain calculations.

To increase these evils, a project was formed to fix the prices of articles, and restrain persons from giving or receiving more for any commodity than the price stated by authority. These regulating acts were reprobated by every man acquainted with commerce and finance; as they were intended to prevent an effect without removing the cause. To attempt to fix the value of money, while streams of bills were incessantly flowing from the treasury of the United States, was as ridiculous as an attempt to restrain the rising of waters in rivers amidst showers of rain.

Notwithstanding all opposition, some states framed and attempted to enforce these regulating acts. The effect was, a momentary apparent stand in the price of articles; innumerable acts of collusion and evasion among the dishonest; numberless injuries done to the honest; and finally a total disregard of all such regulations, and the consequent contempt of laws and the authority of the magistrate.

During these fluctuations of business, occasioned by the variable value of money, people lost sight, in some measure, of the steady principles which had before governed their intercourse with each other. Speculation followed and relaxed the rigour of commercial obligations.

Industry likewise suffered by the flood of money which had deluged the states. The prices of produce had risen in proportion to the quantity of money in circulation, and the demand for the commodities of the country. This made the acquisition of money easy, and indolence and luxury, with their train of desolating consequences, spread themselves among all descriptions of people.

But as soon as hostilities between Great-Britain and America were suspended, the scene was changed. The bills emitted by Congress had for some time before ceased to circulate; and the specie of the country was soon drained off to pay for foreign goods, the importations of which exceeded all calculation. Within two years from the close of the war, *a scarcity of money* was the general cry. The merchants found it impossible to collect their debts, and make punctual remittances to their creditors in Great-Britain; and the consumers were driven to the necessity of retrenching their superfluities in living, and of returning to their ancient habits of industry and economy.

This change was however progressive and slow. In many of the states which suffered by the numerous debts they had contracted, and by the distresses of war, the people called aloud for emissions of paper bills to supply the deficiency of a medium. The depreciation of the continental bills was a recent example of the ill effects of such an expedient, and the impossibility of supporting the credit of paper, was urged by the opposers of the measure as a substantial argument against adopting it. But nothing would silence the popular clamour; and many men, of the first talents and eminence, united their

voice with that of the populace. Paper money had formerly maintained its credit, and been of singular utility; and past experience, notwithstanding a change of circumstances, was an argument in its favour that bore down all opposition.

Pennsylvania, although one of the richest states in the union, was the first to emit bills of credit, as a substitute for specie. But the revolution had removed the necessity of it, at the same time, that it had destroyed the means by which its former credit had been supported. Lands, at the close of the war, were not rising in value; bills on London could not so readily be purchased, as while the province was dependent on Great Britain; the state was split into parties, one of which attempted to defeat the measures most popular with the other; and the depreciation of continental bills, with the injuries which it had done to individuals, inspired a general distrust of all publick promises.

Notwithstanding a part of the money was loaned on a good landed security, and the faith of that wealthy state pledged for the redemption of the whole at its nominal value, yet the advantages of specie as a medium of commerce, especially as an article of remittance to London, soon made a difference of ten per cent. between the bills of credit and specie. This difference may be considered rather as an appreciation of gold and silver, than a depreciation of paper; but its effects, in a commercial state, must be highly prejudicial. It opens the door to frauds of all kinds, and frauds are usually practised on the honest and unsuspecting, especially upon all classes of labourers.

North-Carolina, South-Carolina and Georgia, had recourse to the same wretched expedient to supply themselves with money; not reflecting that industry, frugality, and good commercial laws are the only means of turning the balance of trade in favour of a country, and that this balance is the only permanent source of solid wealth and ready money. But the bills they emitted shared a worse fate than those of Pennsylvania; they expelled almost all the circulating cash from the states; they lost a great part of their nominal value, they impoverished the merchants, and embarrassed the planters.

The state of Virginia tolerated a base practice among the inhabitants of cutting dollars and smaller pieces of silver, in order to prevent it from leaving the state. This pernicious practice prevailed also in Georgia.*

Maryland escaped the calamity of a paper currency. The house of delegates brought forward a bill for the emission of bills of credit to a large amount; but the senate firmly and successfully resisted the pernicious scheme. The opposition between the two houses was violent and tumultuous; it threatened the state with anarchy; but the question was carried to the people, and the good sense of the senate finally prevailed.

* A dollar was usually cut in five pieces, and each passed by toll for a quarter; so the man who cut it gained a quarter, or rather a fifth.

New-Jersey, situated between two of the largest commercial towns in America, was consequently drained of specie. This state also emitted a large sum in bills of credit, which served to pay the interest of the publick debt; but the currency depreciated, as in other states.

Rhode-Island exhibited a melancholy proof of that licentiousness and anarchy which always follow a relaxation of moral principles. In a rage for supplying the state with money, and filling every man's pocket without obliging him to earn it by his diligence, the legislature passed an act for making one hundred thousand pounds in bills; a sum much more than sufficient for a medium of trade in that state, even without any specie. The merchants in Newport and Providence opposed the act with firmness; and their opposition added fresh vigour to the resolution of the assembly, and induced them to enforce the scheme by a legal tender of a most extraordinary nature. They passed an act, ordaining that if any creditor should refuse to take their bills, for any debt whatever, the debtor might lodge the sum due with a justice of the peace, who should give notice of it in the publick papers; and if the creditor did not appear and receive the money within six months from the first notice, his debt should be forfeited. This act astonished all honest men; and even the promoters of paper money-making in other states, and other principles, reprobated this act of Rhode-Island, as wicked and oppressive. But the state was governed by faction. During the cry for paper money, a number of boisterous, ignorant men, were elected into the legislature, from the smaller towns in the state. Finding themselves united with a majority in opinion, they formed and executed any plan their inclinatioon suggested; they opposed every measure that was agreeable to the mercantile interest; they not only made bad laws to suit their own wicked purposes, but appointed their own corrupt creatures to fill the judicial and executive departments. Their money depreciated sufficiently to answer all their vile purposes in the discharge of debts; business almost totally ceased; all confidence was lost; the state was thrown into confusion at home, and was execrated abroad.

Massachusetts Bay had the good fortune, amidst her political calamity, to prevent an emission of bills of credit. New-Hampshire made no paper; but in the distresses which followed her loss of business after the war, the legislature made horses, lumber and most articles of produce, a legal tender in the fulfilment of contracts. It is doubtless unjust to oblige a creditor to receive any thing for his debt, which he had not in contemplation at the time of the contract. But as the commodities which were to be a tender by law in New-Hampshire, were of an intrinsick value, bearing some proportion to the amount of the debt, the injustice of the law was less flagrant, than that which enforced the tender of paper in Rhode-Island. Indeed a similar law prevailed for some time in Massachusetts; and in Connecticut it is optional with the creditor either to imprison the debtor, or take land on execution, at a price to be fixed by three indifferent freeholders; provided no other means of payment shall appear to satisfy the demand. It must not however be omitted, that while the most flourishing commercial states introduced a paper medium, to

the great injury of honest men, a bill for an emission of paper in Connecticut, where there is very little specie, could never command more than one eighth of the votes of the legislature. The movers of the bill have hardly escaped ridicule; so generally is the measure reprobated, as a source of frauds and publick mischief.

The legislature of New-York, a state that had the least necessity and apology for making paper money, as her commercial advantages always furnish her with specie sufficient for a medium, issued a large sum in bills of credit, which supported their value better than the currency of any other state. Still the paper raised the value of specie, which is always in demand for exportation, and this difference of exchange between paper and specie, ever exposes commerce to most of the inconveniences resulting from a depreciated medium.

Such is the history of paper money thus far; a miserable substitute for real coin, in a country where the reins of government are too weak to compel the fulfilment of publick engagements, and where all confidence in publick faith is totally destroyed.

While the states were thus endeavouring to repair the loss of specie by empty promises, and to support their business by shadows, rather than by reality, the British ministry formed some commercial regulations that deprived them of the profits of their trade to the West-Indies and Great-Britain. Heavy duties were laid upon such articles as were remitted to the London merchants for their goods, and such were the duties upon American bottoms, that the states were almost wholly deprived of the carrying trade. A prohibition was laid upon the produce of the United States, shipped to the English West-India Islands in American built vessels, and in those manned by American seamen. These restrictions fell heavy upon the eastern states, which depended much upon ship-building for the support of their trade; and they materially injured the business of the other states.

Without a union that was able to form and execute a general system of commercial regulations, some of the states attempted to impose restraints upon the British trade that should indemnify the merchant for the losses he had suffered, or induce the British ministry to enter into a commercial treaty, and relax the rigour of their navigation laws.

These measures, however, produced nothing but mischief. The states did not act in concert, and the restraints laid on the trade of one state, operated to throw the business into the hands of its neighbour. Massachusetts, in her zeal to counteract the effect of the English navigation laws, laid enormous duties upon British goods imported into that state; but the other states did not adopt a similar measure; and the loss of business soon obliged that state to repeal or suspend the law. Thus when Pennsylvania laid heavy duties on British goods, Delaware and New-Jersey made a number of free ports to encourage the landing of goods within the limits of those states; and the duties in Pennsylvania served no purpose, but to create smuggling.

Thus divided, the states began to feel their weakness. Most of the legislatures had neglected to comply with the requisitions of Congress

for furnishing the federal treasury ; the resolves of Congress were disregarded ; the proposition for a general impost to be laid and collected by Congress was negatived first by Rhode-Island, and afterwards by New-York. The British troops continued, under pretence of a breach of treaty on the part of America, to hold possession of the forts on the frontiers of the states. Many of the states individually were infested with popular commotions or iniquitous tender laws, while they were oppressed with publick debts ; the certificates or publick notes had lost most of their value, and circulated merely as the objects of speculation ; Congress lost their respectability, and the United States their credit and importance.

In the midst of these calamities, a proposition was made in 1785, in the house of delegates in Virginia, to appoint commissioners, to meet such as might be appointed in the other states, who should form a system of commercial regulations for the United States, and recommend it to the several legislatures for adoption. Commissioners were accordingly appointed, and a request was made to the legislatures of the other states to accede to the proposition. Accordingly several of the states appointed commissioners, who met at Annapolis in the summer of 1786, to consult what measures should be taken to unite the states in some general and efficient commercial system. But as the states were not all represented, and the powers of the commissioners were, in their opinion, too limited to propose a system of regulations adequate to the purposes of government, they agreed to recommend a general convention to be held at Philadelphia the next year, with powers to frame a general plan of government for the United States. This measure appeared to the commissioners absolutely necessary. The old confederation was essentially defective. It was destitute of almost every principle necessary to give effect to legislation.

It was defective in the article of legislating over states, instead of individuals. All history testifies that recommendations will not operate as laws, and compulsion cannot be exercised over states, without violence, war and anarchy. The confederation was also destitute of a sanction to its laws. When resolutions were passed in Congress, there was no power to compel obedience by fine, by suspension of privileges, or other means. It was also destitute of a guarantee for the state governments. Had one state been invaded by its neighbour, the union was not constitutionally bound to assist in repelling the invasion, and supporting the constitution of the invaded state. The confederation was further deficient in the principle of apportioning the quotas of money to be furnished by each state ; in a want of power to form commercial laws, and to raise troops for the defence and security of the union ; in the equal suffrage of the states, which placed Rhode-Island on a footing in Congress with Virginia; and to crown all the defects, we may add the want of a judiciary power, to define the laws of the union, and to reconcile the contradictory decisions of a number of independent judicatories.

These and many inferior defects were obvious to the commissioners, and therefore they urged a general convention, with powers to form and offer to the consideration of the states a system of general gov-

ernment that should be less exceptionable. Accordingly in May, 1787, delegates from all the states, except Rhode-Island, assembled at Philadelphia, and chose General Washington for their President. After four months deliberation, in which the clashing interests of the several states appeared in all their force, the convention agreed to recommend the plan of federal government which we have already recited.

As soon as the plan of the federal constitution was submitted to the legislatures of the several states, they proceeded to take measures for collecting the sense of the people upon the propriety of adopting it. In the small state of Delaware, a convention was called in November, which, after a few days' deliberation, ratified the constitution, without a dissenting voice.

In the convention of Pennsylvania, held the same month, there was a spirited opposition to the new form of government. The debates were long and interesting. Great abilities and firmness were displayed on both sides; but on the 13th of December, the constitution was received by two thirds of the members. The minority were dissatisfied, and with an obstinacy that ill became the representatives of a free people, published their reasons of dissent, which were calculated to inflame a party already violent, and which, in fact, produced some disturbances in the western part of the state.

In New-Jersey, the convention, which met in December, were unanimous in adopting the constitution; as was likewise that of Georgia.

In Connecticut there was some opposition; but the constitution was, on the 9th of January 1788, ratified by three fourths of the votes in convention, and the minority peaceably acquiesced in the decision.

In Massachusetts, the opposition was large and respectable. The convention, consisting of more than three hundred delegates, were assembled in January, and continued their debates with great candour and liberality, about five weeks. At length the question was carried for the constitution by a small majority; and the minority, with that manly condescension which becomes great minds, submitted to the measure, and united to support the government.

In New-Hampshire, the federal cause was for some time doubtful. The greatest number of the delegates in convention, were at first on the side of the opposition; and some, who might have had their objections removed by the discussion of the subject, were instructed to reject the constitution. Although the instructions of constituents cannot, on the true principles of representation, be binding upon a deputy, in any legislative assembly, because his constituents are but a part of the state, and have not heard the arguments and objections of the whole, whereas his act is to affect the whole state, and therefore is to be directed by the sense or wisdom of the whole, collected in the legislative assembly; yet the delegates in the New-Hampshire convention conceived very erroneously, that the sense of the freemen in the towns, those little districts, where no act of legislation can be per-

formed, imposed a restraint upon their own wills.* An adjournment was therefore moved and carried. This gave the people opportunity to gain a farther knowledge of the merits of the constitution, and at the second meeting of the convention, it was ratified by a respectable majority.

In Maryland, several men of abilities appeared in the opposition, and were unremitted in their endeavours to persuade the people that the proposed plan of government was artfully calculated to deprive them of their dearest rights; yet in convention it appeared that five sixths of the voices were in favour of it.

In South-Carolina, the opposition was respectable; but two thirds of the convention appeared to advocate and vote for the constitution.

In Virginia, many of the principal characters opposed the ratification of the constitution with great abilities and industry. But after a full discussion of the subject, a small majority of a numerous convention appeared for its adoption.

In New-York, two thirds of the delegates in convention were, at their first meeting, determined to reject the constitution. Here therefore the debates were the most interesting, and the event extremely doubtful. The argument was managed with uncommon address and abilities on both sides of the question. But during the session, the ninth and tenth states had acceded to the proposed plan, so that by the constitution, Congress were empowered to issue an ordinance for organizing the new government. This event placed the opposition on new ground; and the expediency of uniting with the other states, the generous motives of conciliating all differences, and the danger of a rejection, influenced a respectable number, who were originally opposed to the constitution, to join the federal interest. The constitution was accordingly ratified by a small majority; but the ratification was accompanied here as in Virginia, with a bill of rights, declaratory of the sense of the convention, as to certain great principles, and with a catalogue of amendments, which were to be recommended to the consideration of the new Congress, and the several state legislatures.

North-Carolina met in convention in July, to deliberate on the new constitution. After a short session, they rejected it by a majority of one hundred and seventy-six against seventy-six. In November, 1789, however, this state again met in convention, and ratified the constitution by a large majority.

Rhode-Island was doomed to be the sport of a blind and singular policy. The legislature, in consistency with the measures which had been before pursued, did not call a convention, to collect the sense of the state upon the proposed constitution; but in an unconstitutional and absurd manner, submitted the plan of government to the consideration of the people. Accordingly it was brought before town-meetings, and in most of them rejected. In some of the large towns, particularly in Newport and Providence, the people collected and resolved, with great propriety, that they could not take up the subject;

* This pernicious opinion has prevailed in all the states, and done infinite mischief.

and that the proposition for embracing or rejecting the federal constitution, could come before no tribunal but that of the *state* in convention or legislature. On the 24th of May, 1790, a convention of this state met at Newport, and on the 29th, adopted the constitution by a majority of *two* only.

Vermont, in convention at Bennington, January 10th, 1791, ratified the constitution of the United States, by a great majority.*

From the moment the proceedings of the general convention at Philadelphia transpired, the publick mind was exceedingly agitated, and suspended between hope and fear, until nine states had ratified their plan of a federal government. Indeed the anxiety continued until Virginia and New-York had acceded to the system. But this did not prevent the demonstrations of their joy, on the accession of each state.

On the ratification in Massachusetts, the citizens of Boston, in the elevation of their joy, formed a procession in honour of the happy event, which was novel, splendid and magnificent. This example was afterwards followed, and in some instances improved upon, in Baltimore, Charlestown, Philadelphia, New-Haven, Portsmouth and New-York, successively. Nothing could equal the beauty and grandeur of these exhibitions. A ship was mounted upon wheels, and drawn through the streets; mechanicks erected stages, and exhibited specimens of labour in their several occupations, as they moved along the road; flags with emblems, descriptive of all the arts and of the federal union, were invented and displayed in honour of the government; multitudes of all ranks in life assembled to view the splendid scenes; while sobriety, joy and harmony marked the brilliant exhibitions, by which the Americans celebrated the establishment of their empire.

On the 3d of March, 1789, the delegates from the eleven states, which at that time had ratified the constitution, assembled at New-York, where a convenient and elegant building had been prepared for their accommodation. On opening and counting the votes for President, it was found that GEORGE WASHINGTON was unani-

* The following exhibits at one view, the order, time, &c. in which the several states ratified the federal constitution.

				Majority.
Delaware,	December 3,	1787,	unanimously	
Pennsylvania,	December 13,		46 to 23	23
New-Jersey,	December 19,		unanimously	
Georgia,	January 2,	1788,	unanimously	
Connecticut,	January 9,		128 to 40	88
Massachusetts,	February 6,		187 to 168	19
Maryland,	April 28,		63 to 12	51
South-Carolina,	May 23,		149 to 73	76
New-Hampshire,	June 21,		57 to 46	11
Virginia,	June 25,		89 to 79	10
New-York,	July 26,		30 to 25	5
North-Carolina,	November 27,	1789,	193 to 75	118
Rhode-Island,	May 29,	1790,		2
Vermont,	January 10,	1791,	by a great majority.	

mously elected to that dignified office, and that JOHN ADAMS* was chosen Vice President. The annunciation of the choice of the first and second magistrates of the United States, occasioned a general diffusion of joy among the friends to the union, and fully evinced that these eminent characters were the choice of the people.

On the 30th of April, 1789, GEORGE WASHINGTON was inaugurated PRESIDENT of the United States of America, in the city of New-York. The ceremony was performed in the open gallery of Federal Hall, in the view of many thousand spectators. The oath was administered by Chancellor Livingston. Several circumstances concurred to render the scene unusually solemn—the presence of the beloved Father and Deliverer of his country—the impressions of gratitude for his past services—the vast concourse of spectators—the devout fervency with which he repeated the oath, and the reverential manner in which he bowed to kiss the sacred volume—these circumstances, together with that of his being chosen to the most dignified office in America, and perhaps in the world, by the unanimous voice of more than three millions of enlightened *freemen*, all conspired to place this among the most august and interesting scenes which have

* Mr. Adams is a descendent of one of the first families who founded the colony of Massachusetts Bay in 1630. He was born at Braintree, in Massachusetts, October 19th, 1735.

He was by profession a lawyer; and such were his abilities and integrity, that he attracted the attention, the esteem, and the confidence of his fellow citizens. Not contented with barely maintaining the rights of individuals, he early signalized himself in the defence of the rights of his country and of mankind at large, by writing his admirable Dissertation on the Canon and Feudal Laws; a work well adapted to convince or confound the advocates either for civil or ecclesiastical tyranny. It evinced that he had abilities to afford powerful aid in the formation of republicks, on the genuine principles of justice and virtue.

The zeal and firmness with which Mr. Adams defended the liberties of his country, did not prevent his acting in the service of her enemies, where he thought they were treated with too much severity. Called upon by his profession, he boldly stood forth as the advocate of Capt. Preston, who had been imprisoned as the murderer of some of the citizens of Boston, on the memorable 5th of March, 1770. His client's cause was most unpopular. The whole town had been in a state of irritation, on account of the conduct of Governour Hutchinson, and the troops which were stationed in it. Their resentment now burst into a flame. But he felt the cause to be a just one; and the danger of incurring the displeasure of his countrymen could not deter him from undertaking it. He conducted the cause with great address, by keeping off the trial till the passions of the people had time to subside. The trial at length commenced and lasted several days, during which he displayed the most extensive knowledge of the laws of his country, and of humanity; and at the conclusion he had the satisfaction of proving to Great-Britain herself, that the citizens of Massachusetts would be just and humane to their enemies amidst the grossest insults and provocations. Capt. Preston was acquitted. In this most delicate and important trial, Mr. Adams manifested that firmness of mind, that disinterested and enlightened patriotism, and that love of justice and humanity, which have uniformly marked his conduct in all those great departments which he has since filled with so much ability and dignity.

He was a member of the first Congress in 1774; and was one of the principal promoters of the famous resolution of the 4th of July 1776, which declared the American colonies Free, Sovereign, and Independent States.

Having been for a considerable length of time one of the commissioners of the war department, and a principal suggestor of the terms to be offered to France for forming a treaty of alliance and commerce, he was sent to the court of Versailles as one of the ministers plenipotentiary of the United States, to consummate that important business.

ever been exhibited on this globe.* For several years after the establishment of the new constitution, the United States were happily distinguished by affording few materials for history.

On his return from France, he was called upon by Massachusetts to assist in forming a plan of government; and to him this State is chiefly indebted for their present excellent constitution.

After this important business was accomplished, he returned to Europe, vested with full powers from Congress to assist at any conference which might be opened for the establishment of peace; and he soon after received other powers to negociate a loan of money for the use of the United States; and to represent them as their minister plenipotentiary to their High Mightinesses the States General of the United Provinces. Such important trusts shew in what high estimation he was held by his country, and the able and satisfactory manner in which he executed them, proved that their confidence was well placed.

While in Europe, Mr. Adams published his learned and celebrated work, entitled "A Defence of the Constitutions of Government of the United States of America," in which he advocates, as the fundamental principles of a free government—equal representation, of which numbers, or property, or both, should be the rule—a total separation of the executive from the legislative power, and of the judicial from both—and a balance in the legislative by three independent, equal branches. "If there is one certain truth," says he, "to be collected from the history of all ages, it is this; That the people's rights and liberties, and the democratical mixture in a constitution, can never be preserved without a strong executive; or in other words, without separating the executive power from the legislative."

A character who rendered such eminent services to his country, both at home and abroad, in seasons of the greatest gloominess and danger, and who possessed such an extensive knowledge of politicks and government, did not remain unnoticed by his grateful countrymen. He was called, in 1789, by the choice of his country, to the Vice Presidency of the United States, which office he filled during the eight years of the Washington administration, when by the voice of his country, he was called to the Presidency of the United States. He administered the government four years, when, in March, 1801, Mr. Jefferson, was elected as his successor.

The difficulties which Mr. Adams had to encounter during his administration were various and great. In the violence of party, it was to be expected, that a diversity of opinions would exist concerning the wisdom of some of his measures. There can be no doubt, however, but that impartial history will do justice to the distinguished merits of this great and honest man, and enrol his name among the most eminent patriots and politicians of the age in which he lived.

"They who have had an opportunity of knowing his Excellency Mr. Adams," says a European writer, "trace in his features the most unequivocal marks of probity and candour. He unites to that gravity which is suitable to the dignity of his station, an affability which prejudices you in his favour. Although of a silent turn, as is common to men who engage in important affairs, yet he has a natural eloquence for the discussion of important subjects, and for the recommending and enforcing the measures and systems which are dictated by sound policy. He has neither the corrupted nor corrupting principles of Lord Chesterfield, but the plain and virtuous demeanour of Sir William Temple. Like him also he is simple in negociation where he finds candour in those who treat with him. Otherwise he has the severity of a true Republican, his high idea of virtue giving him a rigidness, which makes it difficult for him to accomodate himself to those intrigues which European politicks have introduced into negociation.

* "It seemed, from the number of witnesses," said a spectator of the scene, "to be a solemn appeal to heaven and earth at once. Upon the subject of this great and good man, I may perhaps be an enthusiast; but I confess I was under an awful and religious persuasion, that the gracious Ruler of the Universe was looking down at that moment, with peculiar complacency on an act, which, to a part of his creatures, was so very important. Under this impression, when the Chancellor pronounced, in a very feeling manner, "LONG LIVE GEORGE WASHINGTON," my sensibility was wound up to such a pitch, that I could do no more than wave my hat, with the rest, without the power of joining in the repeated acclamations which rent the air."

The deliberations of the legislature of the union were marked with wisdom, and the measures they adopted productive of great national prosperity. The wise appointments to office, which in general were made—the establishment of a revenue and judiciary system, and of a national bank—the assumption of the debts of the individual states, and the encouragement given to manufactures, commerce, literature, and to useful inventions, opened the fairest prospects of the peace, union and increasing respectability of the American states. These prospects have been realized.

To give a regular history, or even a sketch, of the progress of things under the administration of the Federal government—of the wisdom and firmness exhibited by the President and Congress in their measures, in times the most critical and trying—of the intrigues and collisions of contending parties—of the dangers, domestick and foreign, which we have so happily escaped—of the change in the administration of the federal government, how it was accomplished, and what have been its effects, and of the existing state of our political affairs—if the author had abilities and authentick documents to execute the delicate task, would not consist with the intended brevity of the historical part of this work. We consign this business, therefore, to the professed historian.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE AMERICAN REPUBLICK, of which we have given a general account, consists of three grand divisions, denominated the *Northern*, or more properly *Eastern*, *Middle* and *Southern* states.

The *first* division, (the Northern or Eastern States) comprehends

VERMONT	MASSACHUSETTS PROPER
NEW-HAMPSHIRE	RHODE-ISLAND
DISTRICT of MAINE (belonging to Massachusetts)	CONNECTICUT.

These are called the New-England States, and comprehend that part of America, which, since the year 1614, has been known by the name of NEW-ENGLAND.

The *second* division (the Middle States) comprehends

NEW-YORK	OHIO
NEW-JERSEY	INDIANA TERRITORY
PENNSYLVANIA	MICHIGAN TERRITORY,
DELAWARE	

The *third* division (the Southern States) comprehends

MARYLAND	TENNESSEE
VIRGINIA	SOUTH-CAROLINA
KENTUCKY	GEORGIA
NORTH-CAROLINA	MISSISIPPI TERRITORY,

To which we may now add LOUISIANA.

Of these we shall treat in their order.

NEW-ENGLAND,

OR, THE NORTHERN OR EASTERN STATES.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.

NEW-ENGLAND lies around the great bay which sets up N.W. between Cape Cod and Cape Sable, between 41 and 48 degrees N. lat. and between 1° 30′ and 10° 15′ E. long. from Philadelphia; and is bounded north by Lower Canada; east by the province of New-Brunswick and the Atlantick Ocean; south by the same ocean and Long-Island Sound; west by the state of New-York. It lies in the form of a quarter of a circle. Its west line, beginning at the mouth of Byram river, which empties into Long-Island Sound at the south-west corner of Connecticut, lat. 41°, runs a little east of north, until it strikes the 45th degree of latitude, and then curves to the eastward almost to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Its extreme length is about 626 miles; its breadth is very unequal from 100 to 200 miles; containing about 72,000 square miles.

Climate and Diseases.] New-England has a very healthful climate as is evinced by the longevity of the inhabitants. It is estimated that about one in seven of the inhabitants live to the age of 70 years; and about one in thirteen or fourteen to 80 years and upwards.

North-west, west, and south-west winds are the most prevalent. East and north-east winds, which are unelastick and disagreeable, are frequent at certain seasons of the year, particularly in April and May, on the sea coasts. The weather is less variable than in the middle and especially the southern states, and more so than in Canada. The extremes of heat and cold according to Farenheit's thermometer, are from 20° below, to 100° above 0. The medium is from 48° to 50°. The inhabitants of New-England, on account of the dryness of their atmosphere, can endure without inconvenience, a greater degree of heat than the inhabitants of a moister climate. It is supposed by some philosophers, that the difference of moisture in the atmosphere in Pennsylvania and New-England is such, as that a person might bear at least ten degrees of heat more in the latter than in the former.

The quantity of water which annually falls in England is computed at 24 inches; in New-England from 42 to 48; and yet in the latter they suffer more from drought than in the former. These facts evince the remarkable dryness of the atmosphere, in this eastern division of the United States, and in part account for its singular healthfulness. Winter commonly commences, in its severity, about the middle of December; sometimes earlier, and sometimes not till Christmas. Cattle are fed or housed, in the northern parts of New-England, from about the 20th of November to the 20th of May;

in the southern parts not quite so long. There have been frosts in every month in the year, though not in the same year; but not very injurious.

The diseases most prevalent in New-England are the following, viz.

Alvine fluxes	Inflammatory,	
St. Anthony's Fire	Slow, Nervous and	Fevers.
Asthma	Mixed	
Atrophy	Pulmonary Consumption	
Catarrh	Quinsy	
Cholick	Rheumatism.	

Of these disorders, the pulmonary consumption is much the most destructive, and is commonly the effect of imprudent exposures to cold and rainy weather, and the night air with the same quantity of clothing, and the wearing of damp linen; and among the lowest order of people, from the intemperate use of strong liquors, especially of fresh distilled rum, which in too many instances proves the bane of morals, and the ruin of families.

The small pox, which is a specifick, infectious disease, is not allowed at present to be communicated by inoculation, except in hospitals erected for the purpose, in bye places, and in cases where there is a probability of a general spread of the infection in a town. Nor is this disease permitted to be communicated generally by inoculation, in any of the United States, except New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and South-Carolina.

In populous towns, the prevalent diseases are more numerous and complicated, owing to want of fresh air and exercise, and to luxurious and fashionable living.

In these northern latitudes, the prevalent disorders of the winter months, among the males, are inflammatory. Both men and women suffer from not adopting a warmer method of clothing.

The intermittant fever, or ague, is seldom seen within 30 or 40 miles of the sea coast, and scarcely ever, any where in New-England, excepting where they have dammed up the water, for the sake of mill streams, that is to say, where they have converted a running water into nearly a stagnant pond.

A late writer* has observed, that "in other countries, men are divided according to their wealth or indigence, into three classes; the opulent, the middling and the poor; the idleness, luxuries and debaucheries of the first, and the misery and too frequent intemperance of the last, destroy the greater portion of these two. The intermediate class is below those indulgences which prove fatal to the rich, and above those sufferings to which the unfortunate poor fall victims: This is therefore the happiest division of the three. Of the rich and poor, the American Republick furnishes a much smaller proportion than any other district of the known world. In Connecticut particularly, the distribution of wealth and its concomitants is more equal

* Dr. Foolke, in a discourse read before the American Philosophical Society.

than elsewhere, and therefore, as far as excess or want of wealth may prove destructive or salutary to life, the inhabitants of this state may plead exemption from diseases." What this writer says of Connecticut in particular, will, with very few exceptions, apply to New-England at large.*

Face of the Country, Mountains, Cataracts, &c.] New-England is a country which presents to the traveller all the varieties of surface which can be found. There is a plain of great extent in the south-eastern part of Massachusetts. Extensive plains are also spread through a considerable part of the counties of York and Cumberland, and along the Merrimack through the interior of New-Hampshire. Many others not inconsiderable exist in other places. Vallies of every size, from the great Connecticut valley to the little bason, constitute, of course, no inconsiderable part of a country which is so generally undulating, and whose hills are a proverbial description of its surface. Connecticut valley extends from Saybrook to the Canada line, and is not far from three hundred miles in length. Its breadth varies from half a mile to twenty miles, and is charmingly diversified by the intrusion of numerous spurs from the two great ranges of mountains which form its eastern and western boundaries.

The mountains in New-England are either long ranges or separate eminences. The westernmost range begins in the county of Fairfield, and, passing through the counties of Litchfield and Berkshire, may be said to unite with the Green Mountains at Williamstown, in the north-west corner of Massachusetts; being there separated only by the narrow valley of Hoosack river. The highest part of this range is Toghkonnuck mountain in Egremont, the south-western corner of the same state. Over this mountain, which is probably elevated more than 3000 feet above the ocean, runs the boundary between Massachusetts, Connecticut and New-York. This range, hitherto known by no appropriate name, may with propriety be called *Toghkonnuck Range.*

The second range is that of the *Green Mountains.* The eastern front of this range begins at New-Haven, in a noble bluff called West Rock, and extends thence to the Canada line; sloping however with a very gradual declension, in the northern parts of Vermont; and in

* The following calculations and observations on the length of man's life, the result of much investigation, are inserted for the gratification of the curious:

Of 1000 persons—23 die at their birth
277 cutting teeth, worms and convulsions
80 small pox
7 measles
8 women in child-birth
191 consumptions, asthma, and other complaints of the breast
150 of fevers
12 apoplexy
41 dropsy

789
1000

211 only arrive at advanced age, and from these must be deducted those who are carried off by casualties, and diseases not mentioned above.

Canada becoming merely a collection of small hills. The two highest summits of this range are the Camel's Rump, (so called from its strong resemblance to the back of that animal) and the mountain of Mansfield, both in Vermont, in the county of Chittenden: These are very lofty, several thousand feet above the ocean. The third range begins also at New-Haven in another very delightful eminence, called the East Rock; and, passing through the counties of New-Haven, Hartford and Hampshire, extends into Canada, through the whole length of the state of New-Hampshire. The Blue Hills in Southington, Mount Tom, Mount Holyoke, in the vicinity of Northampton and Hadley, and Mount Toby in Sunderland, are the principal summits of this range south of New-Hampshire. This range, although less lofty than the highest parts of the two former, is yet more precipitous and romantick than either. It crosses Connecticut river just below Northampton and Hadley in Massachusetts. No mountains in New-England present, from their summits, so delightful views as are furnished by various eminences of this range. This may be advantageously termed *The Range of Mount Tom*, which is the principal eminence.

The south, or eastern range is less distinctly marked: It begins at Lyme, in Connecticut, and forms the eastern boundary of the Connecticut valley, until it unites with the last mentioned range in the County of Hampshire. It has no very remarkable eminences.

Of single mountains, the highest, in Massachusetts, is Saddle mountain, in the towns of Adams and Williamstown, so called from its striking resemblance to that piece of furniture. This mountain is computed to be little less than 4000 feet above the surface of the ocean. Its southern point is the highest land in Massachusetts. Watchusett is a lofty hill in Princeton, in the county of Worcester. Aschutney is a noble single hill in Windsor, in the state of Vermont. Monadnock is a very lofty conical mountain in Jaffrey, New-Hampshire. The White Mountains in New-Hampshire are a round clump with numerous summits, of which *Mount Washington* is far the highest; being probably between ten and eleven thousand feet above the surface of the ocean; and much the highest land in the United States. Nothing can be more majestick than the appearance of this mountain: It is covered a great part of the year with snow, and in this state is seen ninety miles at sea, in fair weather, and a hundred and sixty from its base. The mountains, called Moosehillock, or Moosheelock, and Ossipee, are short ranges in New-Hampshire, of very considerable height, and very respectable appearance; as are those called Pondicherry, (vulgarly Cherry) a lofty range of the White Mountains, on the north-west; though these last may be considered as a continuation of the range of Mount Tom.

New-England abounds in cataracts and cascades, alternately of great beauty and grandeur; of the first of these, the Connecticut, Housatonnick or Hooestonnuck, Onion, Saco, Kennebeck and Penobscot furnish a great number, as do also several smaller rivers. The cascades of the White Mountains are perhaps unrivalled in their romantick beauty.

Precipices of great wildness and grandeur are presented by very many of these mountains; the south-western side of the summit of Mount Washington, particularly, which is a perpendicular descent of vast extent, and is superlatively majestick and awful. Of softer or more elegant scenery, few countries furnish so many, or so exquisite varieties as New-England. The fine intervals which border its numerous streams, particularly the noble ones on the Connecticut, are among the most finished beauties of the landscape. To complete the picture, the native and universal verdure which clothes the lean and dry, as well as the rich and moist part, gives an unrivalled cheerfulness to the whole country.

Soil.] The soil of New-England is diversified by every variety from a lean and barren sand, to the richest clays and loams. The first great division of soil is a brown loam every where mixed with gravel. With this the hills, which constitute a great proportion of the whole surface, are universally covered. This soil is always favourable to the production of grass, and in the western parts of the country (when not too moist) of wheat and all other kinds of grain, and of every kind of fruit suited to the climate. Maize, or Indian corn, grows well, even on the wet grounds, where this soil exists.

Clayey soils are more rarely found and are also very productive, especially when manured. A rich loam, varying towards clay, begins at Guilford and Branford in Connecticut, and spreads through the whole breadth of that state, terminating in West-Springfield. The same soil prevails also in Salisbury and Sharon, and covers about one quarter of the western half of Connecticut. This soil, wherever it exists, is favourable to every kind of cultivation, and is surpassed in goodness by no land in this country.

Sand prevails very commonly on the plains, and abounds in the south-eastern part of Massachusetts, in the old colony of Plymouth. The yellow pine plains are commonly a mixture of sand and gravel; are light and warm, and friendly to every production which does not demand a richer soil. The white pine plains are usually covered with loam, as are some of the yellow pine plains, and are not unfrequently fertile. The vallies, almost without exception, are a rich mould, and friendly to every growth of the climate.

The intervals, which border the various streams, are usually lands formed by earth deposited by the floods, (or, as they are called, freshets) in the spring, and are of the richest quality. Marshes, except of trifling extent, are rare. The most considerable are around New-Haven, and along the eastern coast of Massachusetts and New-Hampshire.

Rivers.] The principal rivers of New-England are the Schoduck, Penobscot, Kennebeck, Amariscoggin, Saco, Piscataqua, Merrimack, Parkers, Charles, Taunton, Providence, Thames, Connecticut, Hoosetonnuck or Stratford, Onion, La Moille, and Missiscoui. Penobscot, Kennebeck, Merrimack and Connecticut are the largest.

Innumerable smaller rivers divide the country in every direction, enrich the soil, adorn the landscape, and furnish mill seats to almost every village. Windmills are erected in very few places. The principal rivers will be described under their proper heads.

Lakes, Ponds and Harbours.] The principal lakes are Champlaine and Memphremagog, lying partly in Vermont, and partly in New-York; Winnipisiogee and Umbagog, in New-Hampshire; Sebago, Moosehead, Willeguenguagun and Chilmacook or Grand Lake, in Maine. Small Lakes, commonly called Ponds, of every size, are scattered throughout the country. Springs and small brooks water almost every farm.

Harbours abound in Maine and Massachusetts. The most useful ones at present, are those of Machias, Frenchman's Bay, Wiscasset, Portland and Wells, in Maine; Piscataqua, in New Hampshire; Newbury-Port, Salem, Marblehead, Boston, Provincetown and New-Bedford, in Massachusetts Proper; Newport, Bristol and Providence, in Rhode-Island; and New-London, New-Haven and Black Rock in Fairfield, in Connecticut. Burlington Bay is the most considerable harbour in Lake Champlaine, on the Vermont shore.

Productions.] The produce of the fields in New-England is of every kind suited to the climate. In the western half, and in various parts of the eastern, wheat, before the ravages of the Hessian fly, grew abundantly; but that insect has not a little discouraged the culture of this grain. Indian corn is a most abundant and useful grain, furnishing a very healthful and pleasing food to the inhabitants, and yielding also the best means of fattening their numerous herds of cattle and swine. The kind, frequently called sweet-corn, is perhaps the most delicious of all culinary vegetables, if eaten young, and one of the most salubrious. The juice of the corn-stalk yields a rich molasses, and a spirit not inferior to that of the sugar cane. No cultivated vegetable makes so noble an appearance in the field. Fruits of every kind, which suit a temperate climate, abound, or may be easily made to abound here. The heat of the summer brings to high perfection the peach, apricot and nectarine. The orchards of apple-trees cover a considerable part of the whole country, except the new settlements. Cider is the common drink of the inhabitants of every class, and may often be obtained, in the interior country, by paying for the labour of gathering the apples and making the cider. Pears, plums, cherries, currants, gooseberries, whortleberries, blackberries, bilberries, &c. abound. Perry is made in some parts of the country, but not in great quantities. Butternuts, shagbarks, and various other fruits of the different species of the hickory and hazlenuts, are plentifully furnished by the southern half of New-England. Madeira nuts and black walnuts are rarely cultivated, although the last grow very easily and rapidly. Hortuline productions are also abundant of every kind, found in this climate, and grow with very little care of culture. Gardening is much improved, and still advancing; many good gardens are seen in almost every quarter of New-England. But the most important production of New-England, is grass. This not only adorns the face of the country, with a beauty unrivalled in the new world, but also furnishes more wealth and property to its inhabitants than any other kind of vegetation. A farm of two hundred acres of the best grazing land, is worth, to the occupier, as much as a farm of three hundred acres of the best tillage land. The reason is obvious. Far less labour is necessary to gather the produce, and convey it to market.

The beef and pork of New-England are abundant and excellent, and feed the inhabitants of many other countries. The mutton is also exquisite, when well fed, and of the proper age; but it must be confessed, that, except in a part of the eastern half of this country, it is very often brought to market too young and indifferently fed; to the injury of both the farmer and the consumer. The lamb is universally fine, but is most excellent in the states of New-Hampshire and Vermont; and particularly in the parts of these states which border on Connecticut river. A great discouragement to the raising of sheep exists in a kind of enclosure which is extensive, the stone wall: Over this wall sheep pass with great ease, and cannot, without much difficulty and labour, be prevented from intruding into all the parts of a farm, wherever this kind of fence is in use. This evil, which is not a small one, will, however, be probably removed by increasing the new breed of sheep, called the Otter breed. These sheep, which, it is said, began in an extraordinary manner at Mendon, in Massachusetts, (of which a sufficiently correct account to be inserted here has not been received) have legs somewhat resembling those of a hare; and while they are not inferior to the common breed, in flesh or wool, are unable to climb any fence; a circumstance which, in New-England, confers on them a peculiar value. The wool of the New-England sheep, is of a good staple, and may be improved, (as it often has been by attentive farmers) to a high, but indefinite degree. The best wool, and the best mutton also, are furnished by short and sweet pastures, and in dry seasons.

The veal of New-England is extremely rich and fine when well fed, as it is to a great extent.

Butter and cheese, in this country, are made in vast quantities, and of various goodness. The butter is very generally excellent, but is still very commonly rendered sensibly worse in the firkin, by the imperfect manner in which it is prepared. A great quantity of ordinary cheese is shipped yearly, to the disadvantage of both the maker and the merchant. There is also a great quantity of cheese of a superior quality made throughout the country. The dairies in Pomfret and Brooklyn, and a few of the neighbouring towns in the eastern part of Connecticut, are probably more generally of the first class, than in any other quarter.

Forests.] Of the forests of New-England, and not improbably of the world, the white pine is the first ornament: The greatest diameter of this extraordinary tree does not exceed six feet, but its height, in some instances, exceeds two hundred and sixty. This vast stem is often exactly straight, and tapering, and without a limb, to the height of more than one hundred and fifty feet. The colour and form of the foliage are exquisite; and the whole crown is noble beyond any thing of this kind, and pefectly suited to the stem which it adorns. The murmurs of the wind in a grove of white pines, is one of the first poetical objects in the field of nature. This tree is of vast importance for building. The white oak of New-England is a noble and most useful tree. It is less durable than the live, or the English oak; but the early decay of ships, built of the white oak, so generally complained of, is less owing to the nature of the tree, than to

the haste and carelessness of the builders. When the timber has been well selected and seasoned, ships formed of this material have come near to the age of those built of the English oak. The chesnut is also of incalculable importance as a material in the construction of buildings and for fencing. A fence composed of good rails of this tree, will endure seventy or eighty years. The chesnut is very common throughout the southern half of New-England, and is of no small value on account of the nourishment it affords to swine during their growth.

Population and Character.] New-England is the most populous part of the United States. It contained, in 1790, 1,009,522 souls, and in 1800, 1,233,011. The great body of these are landholders and cultivators of the soil. As they possess, in fee simple, the farms which they cultivate, they are naturally all attached to their country; the cultivation of the soil makes them robust and healthy, and enables them to defend it.

New-England may, with propriety, be called a nursery of men, whence are annually transplanted, into other parts of the United States, thousands of its natives. Vast numbers of them, since the war, have emigrated into the northern parts of New-York, into Canada, Kentucky, the Western Territory and Georgia; and indeed into every state, and every town of note in the union.

The inhabitants of New-England are almost universally of English descent; and it is owing to this circumstance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the English language has been preserved among them so free from corruption.

The New-Englanders are generally tall, stout and well built. Their education, laws and situation, serve to inspire them with high notions of liberty. Their jealousy is awakened at the first motion towards an invasion of their rights. They are indeed often jealous to excess; a circumstance which is a fruitful source of imaginary grievances, and of groundless suspicions and complaints against government. But these ebullitions of jealousy, though censurable, and productive of some political evils, shew that the essence of true liberty exists in New-England; for watchfulness is a guardian of liberty, and a characteristick of free republicans. A chief foundation of freedom in the New-England States, is a law by which intestate estates descend to all the children, or other heirs, in equal proportions. In consequence of these laws, the people of New-England enjoy an equality of condition unknown in any other part of the world: And it is in this way that the people have preserved that happy mediocrity among themselves, which, by inducing economy and industry, removes from them temptations to luxury, and forms them to habits of sobriety and temperance. At the same time, their industry and frugality exempt them from want, and from the necessity of submitting to any encroachments on their liberties.

In New-England, learning is more generally diffused among all ranks of people than in any other part of the globe; a fact arising from the excellent establishment of schools in every town.

In these schools, which are generally supported by a publick tax, and under the direction of a school committee, are taught the elements

of reading, writing and arithmetick; and in the more wealthy towns, they are beginning to introduce the higher branches of grammar, geography, &c.

A very valuable source of information to the people is the newspapers, of which not less than 30,000 are printed every week in New-England, and circulated in every town and village in the country.*

A person of mature age, who cannot both read and write, is rarely to be found. By means of this general establishment of schools, the extensive circulation of newspapers, and the consequent diffusion of learning, every township throughout the country is furnished with men capable of conducting the affairs of their town with judgment and discretion: These men are the channels of political information to the lower class of people, if such a class may be said to exist in New-England, where every man thinks himself at least as good as his neighbour. The people, from their childhood, form habits of canvassing publick affairs, and commence politicians. This naturally leads them to be very inquisitive. It is with knowledge as with riches, the more a man has, the more he wishes to obtain; his desire has no bound. This desire after knowledge, in a greater or less degree, prevails throughout all classes of people in New-England; and, from their various modes of expressing it, some of which are blunt and familiar, bordering on impertinence, strangers have been induced to mention *impertinent inquisitiveness* as a distinguishing characteristick of New-England people. But this inquisitiveness is rarely troublesome, and generally pleasing. The common people in New-England are outdone by no common people in the world, in civility to strangers.

Before the late war, which introduced into New-England a flood of corruptions, together with many improvements, the Sabbath was observed with great strictness; no unnecessary travelling, no secular business, no visiting, no diversions were permitted on that sacred day. The people considered it as consecrated to divine worship, and were generally punctual and serious in their attendance upon it. Their laws were strict in guarding the Sabbath against every innovation. The supposed severity with which these laws were composed and executed, together with some other traits in their religious character, have acquired for the New-Englanders the name of a superstitious, bigotted people. But all persons are called superstitious by those less conscientious, and less disposed to regard religion with reverence, than themselves. Since the war, a catholick, tolerant spirit, occasioned by a more enlarged intercourse with mankind, has greatly increased, and is becoming universal: And if they do not go beyond the proper bound, and liberalize away all true religion, of which there is very great danger, they will counteract that strong propensity in human nature, which leads men to vibrate from one extreme to its opposite.

* In 1798, there were one hundred and twenty different newspapers printed in the United States, many of them daily papers, and more printed twice a week. In 1788, it was estimated, that no less than *four millions* of newspapers were circulated through the country every year. They have probably nearly doubled since.

There is one distinguishing characteristick in the religious character of this people, which we must not omit to mention; and that is, the custom of annually celebrating Fasts and Thanksgivings. In the spring, the governours of the several New-England states, except Rhode-Island, issue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiously observed in fasting, humiliation and prayer, throughout their respective states; in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harvest, that gladsome era in the husbandman's life, the governours again issue their proclamations, appointing a day of publick thanksgiving, enumerating the publick blessings received in the course of the foregoing year.

This pious custom originated with their venerable ancestors, the first settlers of New-England; and has been handed down as sacred, through the successive generations of their posterity. A custom so rational, and so happily calculated to cherish in the minds of the people, a sense of their dependence on the GREAT BENEFACTOR of the world for all their blessings, it is hoped will ever be sacredly preserved.

The people of New-England generally obtain their estates by hard and persevering labour: They of consequence know their value, and are frugal. Yet in no country do the indigent and unfortunate fare better. Their laws oblige every town to provide a competent maintenance for their poor, and the necessitous stranger is protected and relieved by their humane institutions. It may in truth be said, that in no part of the world are the people happier, better furnished with the necessaries and conveniences of life, or more independent than the farmers in New-England. As the great body of the people are hardy, independent freeholders, their manners are, as they ought to be, congenial to their employment, plain, simple, and manly. Strangers are received and entertained among them with a great deal of artless sincerity, and friendly, plain hospitality. Their children, those imitative creatures, to whose education particular attention is paid, early imbibe the manners and habits of those around them; and the stranger, with pleasure, notices the honest and decent respect that is paid him by the children as he passes through the country.

As the people by representation, make their own laws and appoint their own officers, they cannot be oppressed; and, living under governments which have few lucrative places, they have few motives to bribery, corrupt canvassings, or intrigue. Real abilities and a moral character unblemished, are the qualifications requisite in the view of most people, for officers of publick trust. The expression of a wish to be promoted, was, and is still, in some parts of New-England, the direct way to be disappointed.

The inhabitants are generally fond of the arts and sciences, and have cultivated them with great success. Their colleges have flourished. The illustrious characters they have produced, who have distinguished themselves in politicks, law, divinity, mathematicks and philosophy, natural and civil history, and in the fine arts, particularly in poetry and painting, evince the truth of these observations.

Many of the women in New-England are handsome. They generally have fair, fresh and healthful countenances, mingled with much female softness and delicacy. Those who have had the advantages of a good education, and they are numerous, are genteel, easy, and agreeable in their manners, and are sprightly and sensible in conversation. They are early taught to manage domestick concerns with neatness and economy. Ladies of the first distinction and fortune, make it a part of their daily business to superintend the affairs of the family. Employment at the needle, in cookery, and at the spinning wheel, with them is honourable. Idleness, even in those of independent fortunes, is universally disreputable. The women in country towns manufacture the greater part of the clothing of their families. Their linen and woollen cloths are strong and decent. Their butter and cheese is not inferior to any in the world.

Among the amusements of the people of New-England is dancing, of which the young people of both sexes are extremely fond. Gaming is practised by none but those who cannot, or rather will not, find a reputable employment. The gamester, the horse-jockey, and the knave, are equally despised, and their company is avoided by all who would sustain fair and irreproachable characters.

The athletick and healthy diversions of cricket, foot-ball, quoits, wrestling, jumping, hopping, foot-races, and prison-bass are universally practised in the country, and some of them in the most populous places, and by people of almost all ranks.

History.] New-England owes its first settlement to religious persecution. Soon after the commencement of the reformation* in England, which was not until the year 1534, the Protestants were divided into two parties; one the followers of Luther, and the other of Calvin. The former had chosen gradually, and almost imperceptibly,

* The reformation was begun by Martin Luther, a native of Saxony, born in the year 1483. He was educated in the Roman Catholick religion, and was an Augustin Friar, when, in 1517, having written ninety-five Theses against the Pope's indulgencies, he exhibited them to publick view on the church door at Wirtenburg, in Saxony, and thus began the reformation in Germany. In 1528, the reformed religion was introduced into Switzerland by Zuinglius, Oecolampadius, and others.

The year following, the Diet of the German Empire assembled at Spire, and issued a decree against the reformation. Against this decree, the elector of Saxony, George Marquis of Brandenburg, Ernest, and Francis, Duke of Lunenburg, the Landgrave of Hesse, and the Count of Anhalt, who were joined by several of the cities, publickly read their *Protest*, and in this way, acquired for themselves and their successors down to the present time, the name of *Protestants*.

Calvin, another celebrated reformer, was born at Noyon, in France, in the year 1509. He improved upon Luther's plan—expunged many of the Romish ceremonies which he had indulged—entertained different ideas concerning some of the great doctrines of Christianity, and set the Protestant at a greater remove from the Roman Catholick religion. The followers of Luther have been distinguished by the name of *Lutherans*; and the followers of Calvin, by the name of *Calvinists*.

Such was the rapid growth of the Protestant interest, that in 1563, only 46 years after the commencement of the reformation by Luther, there were in France 2150 assemblies of Protestants. Now there are said to be 2,500,000 souls. [*Scot. Mag.*]

to recede from the church of Rome; while the latter, more zealous, and convinced of the importance of a thorough reformation, and at the same time possessing much firmness and high notions of religious liberty, was for effecting a thorough change at once. Their consequent endeavours to expunge from the church all the inventions which had been brought into it since the days of the apostles, and to introduce the "Scripture purity," derived for them the name of PURITANS. From these the inhabitants of New-England descended.*

VERMONT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Mi.
Length 158 Breadth 70†	between	42° 44′ and 45° N. lat. 1° 43′ and 3° 36′ E. lon. fr. Phi.	9,056

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Lower Canada; east by Connecticut River, which divides it from New-Hampshire; south by Massachusetts; west by New-York.

Divisions.] Vermont is naturally divided by the Green Mountain, which runs from south to north, and divides the state nearly in the middle. It is at present divided into the following counties, which lie in a circuit as you proceed from Bennington county, north, on the west side of the Green Mountains to the Canada line, then east to Connecticut river; then south, along the river to the Massachusetts line, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.	No. Townships.	Number of Acres.	No. of Inhabitants in 1800.
BENNINGTON	Bennington Manchester	17	406,734	14,720
RUTLAND	Rutland	27	660,352	23,733
ADDISON	Addison Middlebury Vergennes	22	486,405	13,349
GRAND ISLE		5		
CHITTENDEN	Burlington	24	529,722	12,812
FRANKLIN	St. Alban's	22	474,888	8,782
ORLEANS	Craftsbury Brownington	22	540,487	1,439
ESSEX	Brunswick Lunenburgh	19	425,207	1,479

* See the history of New-England, published 1804, by the author of this work and Rev. Elijah Parish.

† The northern line separating Vermont from Canada, is 90 miles long. The southern line, dividing Vermont from Massachusetts, is 40 miles in length. In the middle 55 miles.

CALEDONIA	Danville, Peacham	22	493,997	9,360
ORANGE	Chelsea, Newbury	21	479,694	18,250
WINDSOR	Windsor, Woodstock	22	609,491	27,000
WINDHAM	Newfane, Putney	22	520,124	23,455
Total, 11 Counties		240	5,632,101*	154,379

The towns are incorporated and organized much in the same manner as the towns in Massachusetts and Connecticut. In each of the towns granted by the governour of New-Hampshire, while this territory was under the jurisdiction of that province, in number 114, there is a reserve of one right of land, in fee, usually containing 330 acres, for the first settled minister in such town; one right, as a glebe, for the church of England; one right to the society in Great-Britain for the propagation of the gospel in foreign parts; and one right for the support of a school in the town. In the remaining towns granted by the state of Vermont, there is one right for the use of a university; one for the use of schools in each town; one for the use of county grammar schools, and one for the support of the gospel.

Lakes, Rivers and Bridges.] Lake Champlaine, more than half of which lies within the state of Vermont, from Whitehall, formerly Skeensborough, at the southern extremity, including South Bay, to latitude 45°, is one hundred miles in length. It is about 14 miles in breadth in the widest place.† Lake Memphremagog lies partly in the state of Vermont, and partly in Lower Canada, the line crossing it about 7 miles from the southern extremity. This lake communicates with the St. Lawrence, by the river St. Francis. There are numerous small lakes and ponds of less note, some of the principal of which are, Willoughby's lake in Westmore, and Bell-water lake in Barton; the former furnishes fish resembling bass, some weighing 23 pounds. They make a delicious feast for the new settlers. People travel 20 miles to this lake to procure a winter's stock of this fish. Liecester Pond or Lake, in the town of Salisbury, is remarkable for the depth and transparency of its waters, and for a large species of trout which it produces, some of which have been found to weigh above nineteen pounds. Lake Bombazon, in Castleton, gives rise to a branch of Poultney river, on which iron works have been erected in Fairhaven; and a large pond in the town of Wells. Lake Pleasant in Greens-

* To this amount may be added about 163,520 acres, of the waters of Lake Champlaine, which are within the limits of this state, making a total of 5,795,621 acres, or nearly 9056 square miles.

† The state of New-York has, by an act of the legislature, established a company for the purpose of opening an inland navigation, by the Hudson, from Lansingburg to fort Edward, and from for Edward to Wood Creek and Lake Champlaine. The work is now in forwardness, and when completed, will open to Vermont a water communication with Lansingburg, Albany and New-York. The whole of this inland navigation will three hundred and seventy miles, from latitude 45° to New-York.

borough, abounds in trout of one or two pounds weight, many barrels of which are caught in a season.

Few countries are better watered than the state of Vermont. Numerous perennial fountains rise on almost every farm. In this state is the height of land, between Connecticut, Hudson and St. Lawrence. Streams descend from the mountains in various directions, and form numerous small rivers, which fertilize the lands through which they pass and furnish abundant conveniences for mills and founderies. The river Connecticut forms the eastern boundary of Vermont. From its present importance to the commerce of this state, and the opening of an inland navigation from Hartford, in Connecticut, to Barnet, in Vermont, more than 100 miles from the south line of this state, which has lately been effected, it merits to be noticed in this place. This river has its source from a pond in the high lands which divide the waters falling southward into the Atlantick, from those which fall into the St. Lawrence, about 30 miles north of latitude 45°. From its northernmost part to latitude 45° it is the boundary between the United States and the British dominions in America. From the east it receives a considerable stream from 3 mile and Pigwacket ponds, which lie north, and bordering on the 45th degree of latitude. This stream falls into the Connecticut opposite the monument, which stands on the west side of the Connecticut, on the parallel of 45° N. latitude. Another eastern and principal branch of Connecticut river rises in New-Hampshire, and runs north, then making a semicircle, turns to the south, and runs nearly south about 40 miles below lat. 45°; then about 40 more it runs S. W. till it comes to Haverhill; then it runs south to Northfield; below Northfield is a very large bend to the westward, and soon after to the east again. Thence it proceeds, with some meanders, about Northampton and Hadley, nearly south to Hartford, and thence south-easterly to Saybrook, where it empties itself into the sound. Its length, from its source to the sea, including all its turnings, is nearly four hundred miles, and it crosses four parallels of latitude. Loaded boats ascend from Hartford, in Connecticut, to the mouth of Wells river, and even as far as Barnet near the foot of the falls, about two hundred and twenty miles from the sea. In this course the navigation is interrupted by the Falls at Hadley, (which in one place descend *thirty feet*, and with amazing grandeur, though not in a continued sheet. The descent is greater than in any one place at Bellows' Falls) Miller's Falls, at and near Northfield; Bellows' Falls, between Rockingham in Vermont and Walpole in New-Hampshire; Queechy Falls, a little below the mouth of the river of that name, and White River Falls, four and a half miles below Dartmouth College. Companies have been formed by the several states of Massachusetts, New-Hampshire and Vermont, for the purpose of removing these obstructions; and their object is now nearly accomplished. All the falls in this river, except Queechy and White River Falls, are locked.

The falls of Queechy are but a slight obstruction. The falls or rapids of White River, have three distinct bars, which make a portage of three miles. In some parts, the water falls 20 feet.

At the mouth of Queechy, commonly called water Queechy river, there is one of the most beautiful cascades in New-England. The river, here about 258 feet wide, pours over a ledge of rocks 40 feet high, in an almost perpendicular manner, just broken enough to throw the water in every fantastical and delightful form.

The smaller rivers, which fall into Connecticut River on the east, are,

Rivers.	Rises in	Empties at
The Pocomtic, or Deerfield river,	Somerset,	Deerfield in Massachusetts.
Wantastick, or West river,	Bromley and Mount Holly,	Brattleborough.
Saxton's river,	Londonderry,	Westminster.
William's river,	Andover,	Rockingham.
Black river	Saltash,	Springfield.
Queechy river,	Killington,	Hartland.
White river,	Kingston,	Hartford.
Ompompanoosock,	Tunbridge & Vershire,	Norwich.
Wait's river,	Orange,	Bradford.
Well's river,	Groton,	Newbury.
Pasumpsick,	Westmore,	Barnet.
Nulhegan,	Averill,	Minhead.

On the north, and falling into Lake Memphremagog, are,

Rivers.	Rises in	Empties at
The Clyde,	Navy,	Derby.
Barton,	Westmore,	Salem.
Black river,	Greensborough,	Coventry.

On the west, and falling into Lake Champlaine, are,

Rivers.	Rises in	Empties at
Missiscoui,	Kellyvale,	Highgate.
La Moille,	Greensborough,	Milton.
Winouski, or Onion river,	Peacham in Onion river pond,	Between Colchester & Burlington.
La Platte,	Starksborough,	Shelburne.
Lewis creek,	Bristol,	Ferrisburg.
River a Lotris, or Otter Creek	Bromley.	Ferrisburg.
Poultney river,	Tinmouth,	East Bay.
Mettowee, or Pawlett river	Dorset,	Lake Champlaine, by Wood creek.

On all these rivers, from six to eight miles from the lake, are very considerable falls, to the feet of which they are navigable for the largest boats.

Falling into the Hudson, are

Rivers.	Rises in	Empties at
The Battenkill,	Bromley	Saratoga.
Hosaick, north branch,	Woodford,	
south branch	Enters Pownal fr. Massachusetts	Schaticoack.

The south branch of Nulhegan rises in Random, and interlocks with the head of the Clyde. By these rivers the Indians formerly came in canoes from Lake Memphremagog to Connecticut river; the carrying place from one river to the other is about a mile. It crosses the line between Random and Caldersburgh.

The rivers and lakes abound with various kinds of fish. Shad are taken in Connecticut river, as high as Bellows' Falls, over which they never pass. Salmon in plenty have heretofore been caught in the spring, the whole length of Connecticut river, and in most of its tributary streams; but few, however, of late years. A small species of Salmon is taken in Lake Champlaine, the Winouski, or Onion river, La Moille and Missiscoui, but in none of the southern rivers. Perch, pike, pickerel, maskinungas, a very large species of pickerel, pout, mullet, and a fish called lake bass, are found in great plenty. All the streams abound with salmon-trout.

There are handsome bridges built over the Connecticut at Bellows' Falls, Windsor and Hanover.

Springs.] Besides the numerous springs of fresh water, there are some chalybeate springs. There is a spring in Orwel, near Mount Independence, and another in Bridport, which produce the Epsom salts.

There is also a curious mineral spring on some low land over against the great Ox Bow, discovered about the year 1770.

Mountains and Face of the Country.] Vermont is divided, from north to south, by a high chain of mountains. This chain has, from the evergreens with which it is covered in many places, obtained the name of *Green Mountain*, from which the name of Vermont, is derived to the state. The southern extremity is called West Rock, a precipice about three miles from New-Haven, in Connecticut; thence the mountain ranges northward, rising in height, as it advances through Connecticut, Massachusetts and Vermont. The hills in Fairfield county are a principal branch, on the coast of the Green Mountains. Towards Lake Memphremagog it spreads into a high plain country, exceedingly fertile, and passes into the province of Quebeck. After having formed the rapids of St. Francis, it collects into a high range of mountains, which terminate near the St. Lawrence. From Massachusetts line, more than 80 miles to the north, the western verge of the Green Mountains is from twenty to thirty miles on a straight line from Connecticut river. Almost the whole of this country is formed with mountains ranging parallel with the course of Connecticut river. The west range, which continues unbroken with few exceptions, nearly through the state, is, in general, much the highest. On the east they decrease gradually to the meadows, and sometimes to the edge of the river. These last are intersected by the rivers which run into the Connecticut, in a direction nearly from the northwest to the southeast. The vallies, or rather glens, which separate these ranges, are generally narrow, and mostly covered with hemlock, fir and spruce.

About 100 miles from Massachusetts line, between the waters of White river and Winouski or Onion river, there passes off to the north-east, a range of high lands, frequently rising into very elevated

mountains. This runs parallel with Connecticut river; the height being from ten to fifteen miles distant, as far as the north line of the state. The western range continues northward, sometimes falling below the clouds, sometimes rising above them. Between these two ranges, extending from twenty to thirty miles in breadth, is a beautiful champaign country, second in fertility, perhaps, to none in Vermont.

The most remarkable mountains in the state are Mount Anthony, between Bennington and Pownal, Stratton Mountain, Danby Mountain, Kellington Peaks, Kingston Mountain, Camel's Rump, Mansfield Mountain, a very high mountain between Kelly Vale and Belvidere, Upper Great Monadnock, quite in the N. E. corner of the state, and Ascutney, between Windsor and Weathersfield. On the west of the Green Mountain, there is one, and, in some places, two or three ranges of smaller mountains, though frequently interrupted. These extend as far as the north line of the county of Rutland: From that, to the latitude of forty-five degrees, one hundred miles in length, and from twenty to thirty miles in breadth, between lake Champlaine and the Green Mountain, is a fine tract of land, abounding with only moderate hills. Through this whole extent, few tracts can be found unfit for cultivation.

It is remarkable that the hills and mountains are generally covered on the east sides with what is called hard wood, such as birch, beach, maple, ash, elm, and butternut; the west side is generally covered with evergreens.

Climate.] During the winter in Vermont, the sky is mostly serene, a keen air, and the ground, from about the middle of December to the latter part of March, is covered with snow; and on the high lands, among the mountains, frequently to the depth of four or five feet. It is found, however, that the severity of the winter is sensibly moderated, and the quantity of snow diminished, as the settlement and cultivation of the country have advanced. As there is little frost in the earth, on the dissolution of the snows, vegetation generally advances in the spring with great rapidity.

Soil and Productions.] There are a great variety of soils in Vermont; loam, sand, gravel, clay, marle, slate; and these variously intermixed. The country, in general, even the hilly and mountainous part, is not rocky. On the west side of the Green Mountain, and in many places on Connecticut river, is raised a great quantity of wheat, of an excellent quality, particularly on the marly lands bordering on Lake Champlaine. On the mountainous part, to the east, winter wheat does not, in general, succeed, until the lands have been some time cultivated. But summer wheat thrives well, as do, very generally, barley, oats, peas, flax, and all kinds of eatable roots, which are cultivated in the neighbouring states. The warmer soils, and the lands along the rivers, produce good Indian corn. The state affords the best pasturage, particularly the higher lands, and already sends considerable quantities of very fine beef to market.

Mines, Minerals and Fossils.] Iron mines abound, on the west side of the mountain. The first iron mine in this state was opened in Tinmouth, in the year 1795; since which others have been discover-

ed and worked in Shaftsbury, Rutland, Shoreham, Monkton and Milton. Several have been found, which have not yet been worked. A lead mine has lately been discovered in Sunderland. The vein is in a rock of white flint. The ore is very rich, but the mine has not been opened sufficiently to discover the quantity. In Shrewsbury, in the county of Rutland, is found a mine of that species of iron ore called pyrites; the same in quality, though not in appearance, with what are called brass lumps, from which copperas, or green vitriol, is extracted. It is so highly sulphureous, that a piece, thrown into the fire, will blaze like a brimstone match. From this ore, small quantities of copperas have been made, merely for experiment. There is in the town of Rutland, a vein of very fine pipe-clay, which has been wrought into crucibles, that prove very durable. This may hereafter furnish a material for a valuable manufacture of white earthen ware. Numerous quarries of marble, white, grey, and variegated, are found in almost every town from Bennington to the Missiscoui. A quarry has lately been opened in Bennington, which, in fineness, and the beauty and variety of its clouds, may vie with the best imported marble. Large quantities of lime are manufactured in Caledonia county from a species of marle, dug out of marshy ground, first made into brick, then burned to lime. Though not so strong as stone lime, it yet answers a valuable purpose to the inhabitants.

Trade and Manufactures.] The trade from this state is principally to Hartford, Boston and New-York. Some little trade is carried on with the province of Quebeck. The remittances to Quebeck are mostly made in lumber, such as boards, plank, square timber and staves, by Lake Champlaine and the St. Lawrence. The articles of export to Hartford, Boston, Portland and New-York, are horses, beef, pork, butter, cheese, wheat, wheat flour, iron, nails, pot and pearl ashes. Of the two last articles, one thousand tons were made in the state in the year 1791.

There are several distilleries for corn spirits in this state. At Middlebury is a porter brewery on a pretty large scale. The iron manufacture is carried on to a considerable extent. In the county of Bennington are three forges and a furnace. In the county of Rutland are fourteen forges, three furnaces, and a slitting mill. In the counties of Addison and Chittenden are five forges. In common seasons, large quantities of maple sugar are manufactured for home consumption. It has been estimated, by a competent judge, that the average quantity made for every family back of Connecticut river, is 200lbs. a year. One man, with but ordinary advantages, in one month, made 550lbs. of a quality equal to imported brown sugar. In two towns, in Orange county, containing no more than 40 families, 13,000lbs. of sugar were made in the year 1791. In some parts of the state, the inhabitants are beginning to line the roads with maple trees. And it would certainly be a wise measure if this practice should become general throughout the states. Orchards of these trees planted on sloping hills, so as to render it easy to collect the juice, might be attended with peculiar advantages to the owners. Little pains, however, are taken to plant maple orchards, or even to preserve the trees where they grow spontaneously. Most families manufacture, in their houses,

the greater part of their common clothing, from flax and wool raised on their own farms, of an excellent quality.

Animals.] The domestick animals are horses and black cattle, to the breed of which, great attention has been paid of late ; jacks, mules, and a very fine breed of sheep and hogs, which thrive no where better perhaps than in Vermont. The indigenous quadrupeds are the moose-deer, common deer, bears, wolves, cats of the mountain, wild cats, black cats, foxes, a species of hare which are white in winter, several kinds of squirrels, martins, the mink, otters and beavers ; although the latter are perhaps hardly to be found in the state at present. Here is also to be found the urchin or hedge-hog. It has been confidently asserted, that this animal has the power of shooting his quills at a considerable distance, to the no small danger of his pursuers. This, however, is a mere fiction. The quills of this animal are slightly inserted. They have a very sharp and fine barbed point. When attacked, instead of standing in his defence, he lies on his belly, and draws himself into the shape of a ball, and, by means of stiff bristles with which his body is thinly covered, erects his quills in every direction. If a dog, or other creature venture to attack him in this position, the head and mouth are instantly filled with the quills, and, indeed, every part which comes in contact with their points. These quills, by reason of their fine, barbed points, are extracted with difficulty, and if left to themselves, soon make their way through any of the fleshy parts. It is, however, frequently killed with a short club, without the least danger. Its weight is from twelve to twenty pounds.

Population, Religion and Character.] The number of people in Vermont, according to the census taken in 1790, was 85,589. The number in 1800, may be found in the foregoing table. The inhabitants of Vermont consist principally of emigrants from Massachusetts and Connecticut, and their descendants. There have been some from Rhode-Island, New-Hampshire, New-York and New-Jersey. Two towns in Caledonia county are mostly peopled from Scotland, and are Presbyterians, partly of the Secession, and partly of the covenanted Church. The manners of the people are the same as those of the states from whence they emigrated. The body of the inhabitants are congregationalists. The other denominations are baptists, episcopalians, quakers, and a few methodists. The state is rapidly peopling. In 1788, the township of Danville, in the county of Orange, was a wilderness without a single family. In 1792 they had two considerable companies of militia ; besides a company of light infantry, dressed in uniform.

The inhabitants of this state are an assemblage of people from various places, of different sentiments, manners and habits. They have not lived together long enough to assimilate and form a general character. Assemble together, in imagination, a number of individuals of different nations ; consider them as living together amicably, and assisting each other through the toils and difficulties of life, and yet rigorously opposed in particular religious and political tenets ; jealous of their rulers, and tenacious of their liberties, (dispositions which originate naturally from the dread of experienced oppression, and the

habit of living under a free government) and you have a pretty just idea of the character of the people of Vermont. Indolence is never a characteristical feature of the settlers of a new country. Emigrants in general are active and industrious. The opposite characters have neither spirit nor inclination to quit their native spot. The inference is, that Vermont is peopled with an active, industrious, hardy, frugal race; as is really the case. And as it is a maxim that the inhabitants of all new countries grow virtuous before they degenerate, it will most probably be so in Vermont.

The inhabitants of the several towns seem generally disposed, as soon as they are able, to settle a minister of the gospel among them. Missionaries, from Connecticut and Massachusetts, to the new and scattered settlements, have been generally well received and treated with grateful respect and kindness.

Military Strength.] In 1796 there were, on the militia rolls 19,500 men. These were formed into 4 divisions, consisting of 8 brigades and 22 regiments. The increase since may be estimated according to the increase of the inhabitants. The bravery of the Green Mountain Boys is proverbial.

State of Literature.] In a new country, like Vermont, few have leisure to attend the arts and sciences beyond the present occasions of life. The higher branches of learning are therefore very little taught in this state. Numbers, however, are educated in the seminaries of the neighbouring states. In October, 1791, the legislature of the state passed an act for establishing a university at Burlington, on Lake Champlaine, in a delightful situation, on the south side of the Winouski, or Onion river, and appointed 10 trustees. The sum of six thousand pounds was secured by donation, part of which was to be applied to the erecting of buildings, and part settled as a fund for the support of the institution. There have been reserved in the several grants made by this state about thirty-three thousand acres of land, for the use of the university. This in a few years, will become a very valuable fund. There is in every town granted by the state, consisting of about one hundred, a right of land, containing about three hundred and thirty acres, on an average, reserved for the use of county grammar schools; and in every town through the state, there is a right for the support of town schools. In no country is common schooling more attended to. A family of children, who could not read, write and understand common arithmetick, would be looked upon as little better than savages. The provision, in this respect, is certainly worthy of imitation. The inhabitants of each town are empowered by law to divide it into as many districts as shall be found convenient; to appoint one or more persons in each district, who, with the selectmen of the town, form a board of trustees for the schools of that town; and are empowered to lease all lands and loan monies that belong to the town, for the use of schools, and to prosecute or defend any suit or matter relating to their trust. The inhabitants of each district have likewise a power to appoint a committee of one or more persons, to raise by tax, on the rateable estates of the inhabitants of the district, one half of the sum which they may find necessary for building a school house and supporting a school. The remainder of

the money is to be raised by subscription, or, if voted by two thirds of the inhabitants, by a tax in like manner. By these means, every class of citizens may have access to the common schools.

In four counties, grammar schools have been established, viz.

Towns,	Counties.	Years.
At Norwich,	Windsor,	1785.
Castleton,	Rutland,	1787.
Peacham,	Caledonia,	1795.
St. Alban's,	Franklin,	——

In 1800, a college was incorporated in Middlebury, and is now flourishing under the government and instruction of a president and subordinate officers. The college edifice is the largest in the state.

The academy at Peacham is very flourishing, and has ample funds in lands appropriated by charter, as has been mentioned. The annual rent of these lands, it is expected will, when the lands shall be leased, yield an annual income of eight or nine hundred dollars. A handsome donation of a farm, worth 1200 dollars, has lately been made by Mr. James Orr, deceased, of Barnet, originally from Scotland. A large and convenient building has been erected for the accommodation of the students.

A Medical Society was instituted in this state in 1784, and another in 1794.

Curiosities.] In the town of Clarendon, on the side of a mountain, is a remarkable cave. The entrance is through a marble rock, and is about the size of a hogshead. It descends, making an angle of about twenty degrees with the horizon, thirty-one and a half feet, and then opens into a large room, twenty-nine and a half feet in length, twelve and a half feet in breadth, and eighteen feet in height. Near the extreme end of this room is a narrow perpendicular descent into another room of an oval shape, twenty feet the longest, and fourteen feet the shortest diameter, and twenty feet in height.

In the year 1782, when this cavern was first discovered, there were numerous stalactites descending from the roof of the upper cavern. Some of these were four inches in diameter, and reached from the roof to the floor. The whole have since, by the wantonness of visitors, been broken down. There are, on the sides of the cavern, many incrustations, which evidently appear to have been formed by petrifaction. The matter of these incrustations, and the stalactites, is calcareous spar, or marble of the same quality as the rock from which the matter of their formation issued, and more or less indurated. These incrustations and stalactites appear to be formed by waters dripping or exuding from the rock, and which, in their passage through the strata of marble, have been elaborated and prepared for the production of new marble, much in the same manner as waters elaborated and prepared in passing through the stems and boughs of plants, for the production of new shoots, &c.

There is another cave on a mountain in Dorset. It is an excavation in a solid marble rock. The entrance, which is a perpendicular ledge, twenty feet in height, is about twelve feet broad, and as many in height. Within, it descends about twenty-five degrees, is twenty-five feet in breadth, twenty feet in height, and one hundred and fifty

feet in length. At the farther extremity, two narrow passages run off to an unknown distance into the mountain, in very few places affording room for persons to stand erect. There are, in this cavern, no stalactites, nor, indeed, any proper petrifactions. There is found, however, in several places, a white friable, calcareous earth, that appears to be formed by water which percolates through the incumbent strata, and which, from the descent of the cavern and the rise of the rock above, is, within thirty feet of the entrance, one hundred and fifty feet in thickness.

In the south part of Manchester, in a hill a little west of the Batten kill, is a deep stratum of friable calcareous earth, of the whiteness of chalk. This earth, with a little burning, produces lime of a good quality. A lump, taken fresh from the stratum, and carefully broken with the hand, exhibits, in perfect shape, innumerable muscle shells, scallops, &c. intermixed with sticks, leaves and other substances. The whole are, however, so perfectly macerated and assimilated, as to form one uniform mass; what was once vegetable matter, not being distinguishable, except to the eye, on being opened as mentioned above, from the matter of the shells.

On the South Hero (Grand Isle) in Lake Champlaine, about 12 feet from the present high water mark, is a large quarry of fine building stone of greyish blue marble, which, on being split horizontally, appears to be wholly formed by the petrifactions of small scallops, a species of shell frequently to be met with in the neighbourhood of the lake, intermixed with the common earth of the shore, which is of a marly nature.

In the vicinity of Missiscoui Bay and various other parts of the state, there is abundance of lime-stone.

Between Burlington and Colchester, the Winouski, or Onion river, has worn a bed through a solid rock of lime-stone, which, in some time of remote antiquity, must have formed at this place a prodigious cataract. The chasm is between seventy and eighty feet in depth at low water; and, in one place, seventy feet from rock to rock, where a wooden bridge is thrown across.

On the same river, at Bolton, is a chasm formed in the same manner. It is somewhat wider, and the rock is at least one hundred and thirty feet in height. From one side several large rocks have fallen across the river, in such a manner as to form a natural bridge at low water, but in a situation to be an object of curiosity only. Several other rivers exhibit similar instances.

A remarkable change was made in Poultney river, in the year 1783. This river empties into East Bay, which communicates with Lake Champlaine, at Whitehall, (formerly Skeensborough.) A little above its junction with East Bay, a ridge of land crosses in a northerly direction; the river running a north-westerly course, on meeting the ridge, turned suddenly to the north-east, and, keeping that course about half a mile, then turning westerly, passed the ridge over a very high ledge of rocks. For several years the river had gradually worn away the bank on the side of the ridge just in the bend where the river turned to the north-east. In May, 1783, during a remarkable freshet, the river, at this place, broke the ridge, and, meeting no rock, it

wore a channel sixty feet deep nearly to a level with the stream below, leaving the former channel and falls dry. The channel of the river, for a considerable way above this place, was lowered to a great depth, so that the low meadow lands, along the river, which before were overflowed with every freshet, have now become a dry plain. The earth thrown out of this prodigious chasm, filled East Bay for several miles, where it had been navigable for vessels of forty tons burden, so that a canoe could with difficulty pass at low water, and even obstructed the navigation at Fiddler's Elbow, a narrow place near the entrance from Whitehall to South Bay. These obstructions (both at the Narrows and in East Bay) have since been mostly removed by the force of the current. Similar alterations appear to have been made in other rivers. Connecticut river has lowered its channel from 80 to 100 feet perpendicular, through the whole length of this state. From the various steps, ranged one above another, and which must, at various times, have formed the bank of the river, the alterations appear not to have been made at once, nor in continuance through the whole length of the river, but at remote and unequal periods. These changes appear, in some instances, to have been occasioned by the river suddenly shifting its channel, as was the case of the river at Fairhaven, mentioned above; in some instances, by a gradual attrition of the rocks, which, in some remote period of antiquity, formed numerous cataracts. On the plain where Dartmouth college stands, which is nearly 100 feet above the present bed of the river, logs of timber have been dug up at the depth of 25 and 30 feet below the surface. This is about the depth of the river at present in the highest freshets, and of what is called the made or meadow lands on the river, and both are formed in the same manner with alternate strata of clay, sand and gravel. Some of the earth which has in a lapse of time been scoped out of the immense chasm, has doubtless been carried into the sea; while large quantities have served to fill the numerous lakes, of larger or smaller dimensions, through which the river once made its way. In Burlington, on the Winouski, a little above the chasm worn in the rocks, as mentioned above, is a large bow of interval land. On a part of this which now lies considerably higher than the river, a well was dug by the owner, a Mr. Lane, in the summer of 1786. Through the whole depth of the well, which was fifty feet, the earth was composed of a fine river sand: Twenty-five feet below the surface, were dug up a large number of frogs in a torpid state, which were found bedded in the earth like small stones. After being exposed a short time to the air, they discovered signs of life, and soon were able to leap about. They did not, however, continue long, but presently became languid, and died. This was probably owing to their being at once exposed to the burning heat of a summer's sun, without water. They might unquestionably have recovered the usual vigour of the species, had more attention been paid to them. These frogs must have been buried in the spot where they were found, by some extraordinary inundation of the river, while in that state of torpor in which they always pass the winter in those climates, and have continued in that situation for centuries. Forty-nine feet below the surface, in the same well, was found a log of timber.

In the town of Thetford is a remarkable pond of about nine acres. It lies on a flat which descends on every side except on the north. It is fed by no stream, nor is there any stream issuing from it. The water is 70 or 80 feet deep, and in summer falls two or three feet. It contains abundance of fish, particularly perch, barrels of which were formerly caught by the inhabitants in a season. It is but about 4 rods from the west bank of Connecticut river, which in this place is nearly 150 feet high. The road passes between the pond and the river's bank.

Chief Towns.] In a new and interior country, populous towns are not to be expected. Bennington, situated near the south-west corner of the state, is one of the largest. It contains a number of handsome houses, a congregational church, a court-house and gaol; and has one of the best and most respectable taverns in the United States. A famous battle was fought near this town, during the late war, (1777) between brigadier-general Starke, at the head of 800 undisciplined militia, and a detachment of Gen. Burgoyne's army, commanded by Col. Baum. In this action, and the one that succeeded it in the same place, and on the same day, between a reinforcement of the British, under Col. Breymen, and general Starke, who was reinforced by Col. Warner, with a continental regiment, was taken 4 brass field pieces, and other military stores, and 700 prisoners. The overthrow of these detachments was the first link in a grand chain of causes, which finally proved the ruin of the royal army. This is one of the oldest towns in the state, being first settled about the year 1764, and is a thriving town, and was formerly the seat of government.

Windsor is situated on Connecticut river. Rutland lies on Otter Creek. Both are flourishing towns. Guilford, Brattleborough, Putney, Westminster, Weathersfield, Hartland, Norwich and Newbury, are considerable towns, lying from south to north on Connecticut river. Newbury is the principal place of trade in Orange county.* It was formerly the shire town, and has a court-house, and a very elegant meeting-house for Congregationalists, with a steeple, the first erected in the state. Newbury court-house stands on the high lands back from the river, and commands a fine view of what is called the great *Ox Bow*, which is formed by a curious bend in the river, and lies a little above Newbury town, but within the township, and bordering on the town. This Bow is the Lower Coos. The Upper Coos is at Lancaster, in New-Hampshire, opposite to Guildhall and Lunenburgh, in Vermont. The great Ox Bow, in Newbury, is one of the most beautiful and fertile meadows in New-England. The circumference of this Bow is about 4½ miles; its greatest depth is seven eighths of a mile, containing about 450 acres. At the season when nature is dressed in her green attire, a view of this meadow from the high lands is truly luxuriant.

Shaftsbury, Pownal, Manchester, Clarendon, Poultney, Pawlet, Danby and Charlotte, are considerable and flourishing towns, west of

* General Bayley and Col. Thomas Johnson, commenced the settlements in this part of the country, about the year 1762. At this period there was no road nor human inhabitant for 70 miles down the river, nor for as many miles eastward. It is now thickly inhabited by thriving farmers.

the mountain. In the town of Orwell is Mount Independence, at the southern extremity of Lake Champlaine, opposite to which is Ticonderoga, in the state of New-York.

Vergennes is one of the most flourishing towns in the state. It stands on the lower falls of Otter Creek, five miles from Lake Champlaine. Vessels of any burden may come up to the falls, which are thronged with various sorts of mills. It is a place of considerable trade. The court-house stands on an eminence. The fall of the waters, the rural scenery around, the compact, lively village, rising from the river, present a romantick and pleasant prospect.

Middlebury, in which the new college is situated, 15 miles above Vergennes, on the same river, is a flourishing town. The legislature have lately met here. Here is an elegant court-house, a brewery, several mills, a distillery, a gun manufactory, an iron forge, and a number of handsome dwelling-houses. It has 1254 inhabitants.

Constitution.] The inhabitants of Vermont, by their representatives in convention, at Windsor, on the 25th of December, 1777, declared that the territory called Vermont, was, and of right ought to be, a free and independent state; and for the purpose of maintaining regular government in the same, they made a solemn declaration of their rights, and ratified a constitution, of which the following is an abstract.

Their declaration, which makes a part of their constitution, asserts that all men are born equally free—with equal rights, and ought to enjoy liberty of conscience—freedom of the press—trial by jury—power to form new states in vacant countries, and to regulate their own internal police—that all elections ought to be free—that all power is originally in the people—that government ought to be instituted for the common benefit of the community—and that the community have a right to reform or abolish government—that every member of society hath a right to protection of life, liberty and property, and in return is bound to contribute his proportion of the expense of that protection, and yield his personal service when necessary—that he shall not be obliged to give evidence against himself—that the people have a right to bear arms; but no standing armies shall be maintained in times of peace—that the people have a right to hold themselves, their houses, papers and possessions free from search or seizure; and therefore warrants, without oaths first made affording sufficient foundation for them, are contrary to that right, and ought not to be granted—that no person shall be liable to be transported out of this state for trial for any offence committed within this state, &c.

By the frame of government, the supreme legislative power is vested in a house of representatives of the freemen of the state of Vermont, to be chosen annually by the freemen on the first Tuesday in September, and to meet the second Thursday of the succeeding October: this body is vested with all the powers necessary for the legislature of a free state—two thirds of the whole number of representatives elected make a quorum.

Each inhabited town throughout the state has a right to send one representative to the assembly.

The supreme executive power is vested in a governour, lieutenant-governour, and twelve counsellors, to be chosen annually in the same manner, and vested with the same powers, as in Connecticut.

Every person of the age of 21 years, who has resided in the state one whole year next before the election of representatives, and is of a quiet peaceable behaviour, and will bind himself by his oath to do what he shall in conscience judge to be most conducive to the best good of the state, shall be entitled to all the privileges of a freeman of this state.

Each member of the house of representatives, before he takes his seat must declare his belief in one God—in future rewards and punishments, and in the divinity of the scriptures of the Old and New Testaments, and must profess the protestant religion.

Courts of Justice are to be established in every county throughout the state.

The supreme court, and the several courts of common pleas of this state, besides the powers usually exercised by such courts, have the powers of a court of chancery, so far as relates to perpetuating testimony, obtaining evidence from places not within the state, and the care of the persons and estates of those who are *non compotes mentis*, &c. All prosecutions are to be commenced in the name and by the authority of the freemen of the state of Vermont. The legislature are to regulate entails so as to prevent perpetuities.

All field and staff officers, and commissioned officers of the army, and all general officers of the militia, shall be chosen by the general assembly, and be commissioned by the governour.

Every seventh year, beginning with the year 1785, thirteen persons (none of whom are to be of the council or assembly) shall be chosen by the freemen, and be called 'the council of censors,' whose duty it shall be, to enquire whether the constitution has been preserved inviolate in every part—whether the legislative and executive powers have been properly exercised—taxes justly laid and collected—the publick monies rightly disposed of—and the laws duly executed. For these purposes they shall have power to send for persons, papers, &c.—to pass publick censures—to order impeachments, and to recommend the repeals of all laws enacted contrary to the principles of the constitution. They are to be vested with these powers for one year only, after the day of their election.

The council of censors, when necessary, may call a convention, to meet two years after their sitting, to alter the constitution; the proposed alterations to be published at least six months before the election of delegates to such convention.

History.] The south part of the territory of Vermont was formerly claimed by Massachusetts. As early as the year 1718, that government had granted forty-nine thousand acres, comprehending part of the present towns of Brattleborough, Fulton and Putney, as an equivalent to the colony of Connecticut, for some lands which had been granted by Massachusetts within the limits of the Connecticut charter.

In the year 1725, the government of Massachusetts, erected a fort in the town of Brattleborough. Around this fort were begun the first settlements within the present limits of Vermont. On a final set-

tlement of a dispute between Massachusetts and New-Hampshire, the present jurisdictional line between Vermont and Massachusetts, was run and established in the year 1741. From that time until the year 1764, this territory was considered as lying within the jurisdiction of New-Hampshire. During this period, numerous grants were made; and, after the year 1760, some considerable settlements were begun under the authority of that province. In the year 1764, by order of the king of Britain, this territory was annexed to the province of New-York. The government of that province pretended to claim the right of soil, as well as jurisdiction, and held the grants formerly made under New-Hampshire, to be void. This occasioned a long series of altercation between the settlers and claimants under New-Hampshire and the government of New-York, and which, at the commencement of the late revolution, terminated in the establishment of a separate jurisdiction in the present state of Vermont. A particular detail of this controversy would be unentertaining. It is sufficient to observe, that on the 17th day of October, 1790, the dispute was finally compromised, by commissioners appointed by the states of New-York and Vermont; and the claims of New-York, both to jurisdiction and property, extinguished, in consideration of the sum of thirty thousand dollars to be paid by the state of Vermont to that of New-York; and on the 4th of March, 1791, Vermont was admitted a member of the federal union. In the late war, between Britain and the United States, the inhabitants of this territory took a very early and active part. Immediately on the news of the battle of Lexington, a company of volunteers, under the late general Ethan Allen, attacked and took the British garrison of Crown Point and Ticonderoga. A regiment was commissioned by Congress and continued in service under the command of the late colonel Warner. Other troops were raised and constantly kept in service by the convention of New-Hampshire grants, and afterwards by the state of Vermont. The spirit of these troops, and the militia of the grants, in the battle of Hubberton and Bennington, in the year 1777, and the assistance which they afforded in the capture of Burgoyne, are well known to the publick. General Burgoyne, in a letter to the British ministry, written at Saratoga, makes the following observation: "The inhabitants of the New-Hampshire grants, a territory unpeopled and almost unknown in the last war, now pour fourth by thousands, and hang like dark clouds on my left."

The history of Vermont has been well written by Samuel Williams, L. L. D. published in 1794.

NEW-HAMPSHIRE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	168	between	42° 41′ and 45° 30′ N. lat.
Greatest Breadth	90		2° 41′ and 4° 29′ E. lon. from Phil.
Least Breadth	19		

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by the province of Lower Canada; east by the District of Maine and the Atlantick Ocean; south by Massachusetts; west by the western bank of Connecticut river; containing 9,491 square miles, or 6,074,240 acres; of which at least 100,000 acres are water.

Civil Divisions and Population.] This state is divided into 6 counties, which are subdivided into 214 townships and locations, most of which are about six miles square. The names of these counties, their chief towns and number of inhabitants, in 1800, follow.

Counties.	Townships.	Inhabitants.	Chief Towns.	No. Inhab.
Rockingham	46	45,427	Portsmouth, lat. 43° 5′	5,339
			Exeter	
			Concord	2,052
Strafford	25	32,614	Dover	2,062
			Durham	1,126
Hillsborough	37 and 3 locations	43,899	Amherst	2,150
Cheshire	35	38,825	Keene	1,645
			Charlestown	1,364
Grafton	50 and 17 locations	23,093	Haverhill	805
			Plymouth	743
Coos	26		Lancaster	440
Total	219	183,858		

Face of the Country.] This state has but about 18 miles of sea coast at its south-east corner. In this distance there are several coves for fishing vessels; but the only harbour for ships is the entrance of Piscataqua river, the shores of which are rocky. The shore is mostly a sandy beach, adjoining which are salt marshes, intersected by creeks. From the sea no remarkable high lands in New-Hampshire appear, nearer than twenty or thirty miles. The first ridge, by the name of the Blue Hills, passes through Rochester, Barrington and Nottingham, and the several summits are distinguished by different names. Beyond these are several higher detached mountains. Farther back the mountains rise still higher, and among this third range, Chocorua, Ossapy and Kyasarge, are the principal. Beyond these is the lofty ridge which divides the branches of Connecticut and Merrimack rivers, denominated the height of land. In this ridge is the celebrated Monadnock mountain. Thirty miles north of which is Sunapee, and 48 miles further, in the same direction, is Moosehillock

mountain. The ridge is then continued northerly, dividing the waters of the river Connecticut from those of Saco and Ameriscoggin. Here the mountains rise much higher, and the most elevated summits in this range are the White Mountains. The lands west of this last mentioned range of mountains, bordering on Connecticut river, are interspersed with extensive meadows or intervals, rich and well watered.

Mountains.] We have already named the most considerable mountains in this state. Several of them require a particular description. We begin with the Monadnock, which lies 10 miles north of the southern boundary of the state, and 22 miles east of Connecticut river. The elevation of this mountain above the level of the sea, as measured by James Winthrop, Esq. 1780, is 3254 feet. The base of this mountain is about 5 miles in diameter, from north to south and 3 from east to west. Its summit is a bald rock; and on the sides are some appearances of the explosion of subterraneous fires. In West river mountain, adjoining Connecticut river, in the township of Chesterfield, appearances of a similar nature are more visible. About the year 1730, the garrison of Fort Dummer, 4 miles distant, was alarmed with frequent explosions of fire and smoke, emitted from the mountain. The like appearances have been observed since.

Ossapy Mountain lies adjoining the town of Moultonborough, on the north-east. In this town it is observed, that in a N. E. storm, the wind falls over the mountain, like water over a dam; and with such force, as frequently to unroof houses.

Moosehillock or Moosheelock Mountain is the highest of this chain, the White Mountains excepted. It takes its name from the circumstance of its being a remarkable range for Moose. This mountain is about 70 miles westward of the White Mountains. From its N. W. side flows Baker's river, a branch of Penigewasset. On this mountain snow has been seen from the town of Newbury, on the 30th of June and 31st of August; and on the mountains intervening, called Franconia and Lincoln Mountains, snow, it is said, lies through the year.

People who live near these mountains, by noticing the various movements of attracted vapours, can form a pretty accurate judgment of the weather; and they hence style these mountains their Almanack. If a cloud is attracted by a mountain, and hovers on its top, they predict rain: and if after rain, the mountain continues capped, they expect a repetition of showers. A storm is preceded for several hours by a roaring of the mountain, which may be heard 10 or 12 miles.

But the White mountains are by far the most stupendous of any in this state or in New-England, and perhaps are the most remarkable of any within the United States; they therefore merit particular notice. The Rev. Dr. Belknap elegantly describes them as follows:

"They are undoubtedly the highest land in New-England, and, in clear weather, are discovered before any other land, by vessels coming in to the eastern coast; but by reason of their white appearance are frequently mistaken for clouds. They are visible on the land at

the distance of eighty miles, on the south and south-east sides; they appear higher when viewed from the north-east, and it is said they are seen from the neighbourhood of Chamblee and Quebeck. The Indians gave them the name of Agiocochook: They had a very ancient tradition that their country was once drowned, with all its inhabitants, except one Powaw and his wife, who, foreseeing the flood, fled to these mountains, where they were preserved, and that from them the country was re-peopled.* They had a superstitious veneration for the summit, as the habitation of invisible beings; they never venture to ascend it, and always endeavour to dissuade every one from the attempt. From them and the captives, whom they sometimes led to Canada through the passes of these mountains, many fictions have been propagated, which have given rise to marvellous and incredible stories; particularly, it has been reported, that at immense and inaccessible heights, there have been seen carbuncles, which are supposed to appear luminous in the night. Some writers who have attempted to give an account of these mountains, have ascribed the whiteness of them to shining rocks, or a kind of white moss; and the highest summit has been deemed inaccessible, on account of the extreme cold, which threatens to freeze the traveller in the midst of summer.

Nature has, indeed, in that region, formed her works on a large scale, and presented to view many objects which do not ordinarily occur. A person who is unacquainted with a mountainous country, cannot, upon his first coming into it, make an adequate judgment of heights and distances; he will imagine every thing to be nearer and less than it really is, until, by experience, he learns to correct his apprehensions, and to accommodate his eye to the magnitude and situation of the objects around him. When amazement is excited by the grandeur and sublimity of the scenes presented to view, it is necessary to curb the imagination, and exercise judgment with mathematical precision, or the temptation to romance will be invincible.

The White Mountains are the most elevated part of a ridge, which extends N. E. and S. W. to an immense distance. The area of their base is an irregular figure, the whole circuit of which is not less than sixty miles. The number of summits within this area, cannot at present be ascertained, the country around them being a thick wilderness. The greatest number which can be seen at once, is at Dartmouth, on the N. W. side, where seven summits appear at one view, of which four are bald. Of these the three highest are the most distant, being on the eastern side of the cluster; one of these is the mountain which makes so majestick an appearance all along the shore of the eastern counties of Massachusetts: It has lately been distinguished by the name of Mount Washington.

To arrive at the foot of this mountain, there is a continual ascent of twelve miles, from the plain of Pigwacket, which brings the traveller to the height of land between Saco and Ameriscoggin rivers. At this height there is a level of about a mile square, part of which is a meadow, formerly a beaver pond, with a dam at each end. Here,

* Josselyn's Voyage to New-England, p. 135.

though elevated more than three thousand feet above the level of the sea, the traveller finds himself in a deep valley. On the east is a steep mountain, out of which issue several springs, one of which is the fountain of Ellis river, a branch of Saco, which runs south; another, of Peabody river, a branch of Ameriscoggin, which runs north. From this meadow, towards the west, there is an uninterrupted ascent on a ridge between two deep gullies, to the summit of Mount Washington.

The lower part of the mountain is shaded by a thick growth of spruce and fir. The surface is composed of rocks, covered with very long, green moss, which extends from one rock to another, and is, in many places, so thick and strong as to bear a man's weight. This immense bed of moss, serves as a sponge, to retain the moisture brought by the clouds and vapours which are frequently rising and gathering round the mountains; the thick growth of wood prevents the rays of the sun from penetrating to exhale it; so that there is a constant supply of water deposited in the crevices of the rocks, and issuing in the form of springs, from every part of the mountain.

The rocks which compose the surface of the mountain, are, in some parts, slate, in others flint; some specimens of rock crystal have been found, but of no great value. No lime-stone has yet been discovered, though the most likely rocks have been tried with aquafortis. There is one precipice, on the eastern side, not only completely perpendicular, but composed of square stones, as regular as a piece of masonry; it is about five feet high, and from fifteen to twenty in length. The uppermost rocks of the mountain, are the common quartz, of a dark, grey colour; when broken, they show very small shining specks, but there is no such appearance on the exterior part. The eastern side of the mountain rises in an angle of 45 degrees, and requires six or seven hours of hard labour to ascend it. Many of the precipices are so steep as to oblige the traveller to use his hands, as well as his feet, and to hold by the trees, which diminish in size, till they degenerate into shrubs and bushes: Above these, are low vines, some bearing red, and others blue berries; and the uppermost vegetation is a species of grass, called winter-grass, mixed with the moss of the rocks.

Having surmounted the upper and steepest precipice, there is a large area, called the plain. It is a dry heath, composed of rocks covered with moss, and bearing the appearance of a pasture, in the beginning of the winter season. In some openings, between the rocks, there are springs of water, in others, dry gravel. Here the grous or heath-bird resorts and is generally out of danger. The sugar loaf, which stands on this plain, is a pyramidal heap of grey rocks, which, in some places, are formed like winding steps. This pinnacle has been ascended in an hour and a half. The traveller having gained the summit, is recompensed for his toil, if the sky be serene, with a most noble and extensive prospect. On the S. E. side, there is a view of the Atlantick Ocean, the nearest part of which is sixty-five miles, in a direct line. On the W. and N. the prospect is bounded by the high lands, which separate the waters of Connecticut and Ameriscoggin rivers from those of Lake Champlaine and St. Lawrence. On the south, it extends to the southernmost mountains of New-Hampshire,

comprehending a view of the Lake Winnipiseogee. On every side of these mountains, are long winding gullies, beginning at the precipice below the plain, and deepening in the descent. In winter, the snow lodges in these gullies; and being driven, by the N. W. and N. E. wind, from the top, is deepest in those which are situated on the southerly side. It is observed to lie longer in the spring on the south, than on the N. W. side, which is the case with many other hills in New-Hampshire.

During the period of nine or ten months, the mountains exhibit more or less of that bright appearance, from which they are denominated white. In the spring, when the snow is partly dissolved, they appear of a pale blue, streaked with white; and after it is wholly gone, at the distance of 60 miles, they are altogether of the same pale blue, nearly approaching a sky colour; while at the same time, viewed at the distance of eight miles or less, they appear of the proper colour of the rock. These changes are observed by people who live within constant view of them; and from these facts and observations, it may with certainty be concluded, that the whiteness of them is wholly caused by the snow, and not by any other white substance, for in fact there is none.*

A company of gentlemen visited these mountains in July, 1784, with a view to make particular observations on the several phenomena which might occur. It happened, unfortunately, that thick clouds covered the mountains almost the whole time, so that some of the instruments, which, with much labour, they had carried up, were rendered useless.

The height of the mountain was computed, in round numbers, at five thousand and five hundred feet above the meadow in the valley below, and nearly ten thousand feet above the level of the sea.†

In the summer of 1804, Judge Davis, Dr. Cutler, Mr. Peck and several others, ascended these mountains and brought away a great variety of fossils &c. &c. which they found here.

These vast and irregular heights, being copiously replenished with water, exhibit a great variety of beautiful cascades; some of which fall in a perpendicular sheet or spout, others are winding and sloping, others spread and form a bason in the rock, and then gush in a cataract over its edge. A poetick fancy may find full gratification amidst these wild and rugged scenes, if its ardour be not checked by the fatigue of the approach. Almost every thing in nature, which can be supposed capable of inspiring ideas of the sublime and beautiful, is here realized. Aged mountains, stupendous elevations, rolling clouds, impending rocks, verdant woods, crystal streams, the gentle rill, and the roaring torrent, all conspire to amaze, to soothe, and to enrapture.

* When the sky, as during north-western winds, is partly covered with white clouds, these mountains have a whitish hue.

† 'This computation was made by the Rev. Dr. Cutler. Subsequent observations and calculations have induced the author to believe the computation of his ingenious friend too moderate; and he is persuaded, that whenever the mountain can be measured with the requisite precision, it will be found to *exceed* ten thousand feet of perpendicular altitude above the level of the ocean.'

On the western part of these mountains is a pass, commonly called the notch, which, in the narrowest part, measures but twenty-two feet, between two perpendicular rocks. From the height above it, a brook descends, and meanders through a meadow, formerly a beaver pond. It is surrounded by rocks, which, on one side are perpendicular, and on the others, rise in an angle of forty-five degrees—a strikingly picturesque scene! This defile was known to the Indians, who formerly led their captives through it to Canada; but it had been forgotten or neglected till the year 1771, when two hunters passed through it, and from their report, the proprietors of lands on the northern parts of Connecticut river formed the plan of a road through it, to the Upper Coos, from which it is distant twenty-five miles. Along the eastern side of the meadow, under the perpendicular rock, is a causeway of large logs, sunk into the mud by rocks, blown with gunpowder, from the mountain. On this foundation is constructed a road which passes through the narrow defile at the south end of the meadow, leaving a passage for the rivulet, which glides along the western side. South of this road, originate the Amonoosuck, a large branch of Connecticut river, (lat. 44° 12′ N.) and Saco rivers. The source of the Saco is within half that of the Amonoosuck, within three quarters of a mile of the Notch.

The rivulet, which gives rise to Saco, descends towards the southeast, and at a little distance from the defile, its waters are augmented by two streams from the left, one of which descends in a trench two feet wide, and is called the flume, from the near resemblance which it bears to an artificial flume. Over these are thrown bridges; and the whole construction of this road is firm and durable; much labour has been expended upon it, and the net proceeds of large tracts of land belonging to the state, not valuable, were applied to defray the expense. In the descent the pass widens, and the stream increases; but for eight or ten miles from the notch, the mountains on each side are so near, as to leave room only for the river and its intervals, which are not more than half a mile wide. In the course of this descent, several curious objects present themselves to view. On the side of one mountain is a projection, resembling a shelf, on which stand four large square rocks, in a form resembling as many huge folio volumes. In two or three places, at immense heights, and perfectly inaccessible, appear rocks of a white and red hue, the surface of which is polished, like a mirror, by the constant trickling of water over them. These, being exposed to the west and south, are capable, in the night, of reflecting the moon and star beams to the wondering traveller in the deep dark valley below, and by the help of imagination, are sufficient to give rise to the fiction of carbuncles.*

To encompass these mountains as the roads are laid out, through the eastern and western passes, and round the northern side of the whole cluster, it is necessary to travel about 100 miles, and to ford eight considerable rivers, besides many smaller streams. The distance between the heads of rivers, which pursue such different courses,

* Dr. Dwight, who has visited these mountains, is of the opinion, that the glittering of the distant cascades, in the moon beams, gave rise to the idea of carbuncles.

from this immense elevation, and which fall into the sea, so many hundred miles asunder, is so small, that a traveller may, in the course of one day, drink the waters of Saco, Ameriscoggin and Connecticut rivers. These waters are all perfectly limpid and sweet, excepting one brook, on the eastern side of Mount Washington, which has a saponaceous taste, and is covered with a very thick and strong froth. It is said, that there is a part of the mountain where the magnetick needle refuses to traverse; this is probably caused by a body of iron ore. It is also said that a mineral, supposed to be lead, has been discovered, near the eastern pass; but that the spot cannot now be found. What stores the bowels of these mountains contain, time must unfold; all searches for subterraneous treasure having hitherto proved fruitless. The most certain riches which they yield, are the freshets, which bring down the soil, to the intervals below, and form a fine mould, producing, by the aid of cultivation, corn and herbage, in the most luxuriant plenty."*

Rivers and Bridges.] Five of the largest streams in New-England receive more or less of their waters from this state. These are, Connecticut, Ameriscoggin, Saco, Merrimack and Piscataqua rivers.

In addition to the description already given of Connecticut river, (page 324) we observe, that it is settled nearly up to its source. It extends along the western side of New-Hampshire, about 170 miles, and then passes into Massachusetts. The rivers which it receives from Vermont, on the western side, have been already mentioned. Besides smaller streams, it receives from New-Hampshire, Upper Amonoosuck, which passes through excellent meadows: Israel river, a romantick stream, bordered with fine land, as is John's river, a deep, muddy stream, 25 or 30 yards wide, 6 miles below Israel river.† This country is called Upper Coos. Just above the town of Haverhill in Lower Coos, falls in Great or Lower Amonoosuck, 100 yards wide; and which, 2 miles from its mouth, receives Wild Amonoosuck, 40 yards wide, from Franconia and Lincoln mountains. Two or three hours heavy rain raises the water in this river several feet, and occasions a current so furious, as to put in motion stones of a foot in diameter; but its violence soon subsides. As you proceed south to the Massachusetts line, you pass Sugar, Cold and Ashoulet rivers.

At Walpole is a remarkable fall, formerly known by the name of the Great Fall, now denominated Bellows' Falls. The breadth of the river above and below them, is about 40 rods. The depth of the channel is about 25 feet, and commonly runs full of water. In Sept. 1792, however, owing to the severe drought, the water of the river, it is said, "passed within the space of 12 feet wide and 2½ feet deep." A large rock divides the stream into two channels, each about 90 feet wide. When the water is low, the eastern channel is dry, being crossed by a bar of solid rock, and the whole stream falls into the western channel, where it is contracted to the breadth of 16 feet, and flows with astonishing rapidity. The perpendicular height of this fall, reckoning from the foot to the upper bar, the distance of about

* See Dr. Belknap's Hist. of New-Hampshire, Vol. III. p. 39.

† *Israel* and *John Hine*, two brothers, were celebrated hunters, from whom these two rivers were named.

100 rods, is 44 feet. There are several pitches one above another, in the length of half a mile, the largest of which is that where the rock divides the stream. Notwithstanding the velocity of the current, the salmon pass up the fall, and are taken many miles above; but the shad proceed no farther. This is the famous fall which is so extravagantly and ludicrously described in an anonymous publication, filled with such extravagant falsehoods, commonly known by the title of "Peters' History of Connecticut."

On the steep sides of the island rock, hang several arm chairs, fastened to ladders, and secured by a counterpoise, in which fishermen sit to catch salmon with dipping nets. In 1784, a bridge of timber, constructed by Col. Hale, was projected over this fall, 365 feet long, and supported in the middle by the great rock, under which the highest floods pass without detriment. This was the first bridge erected upon this river. Within a few years past, several other bridges have been built over this river. One in Hanover, opposite Dartmouth college, consisting of one arch, 230 feet chord, 27½ rods in length, 36 feet wide, with abutments 40 feet square. In the winter of 1804—5 this bridge fell, and has not since been erected. The whole expense, between 12 and 1300 dollars, divided into 200 shares. The undertakers were Messrs. Bruce, Graves and Brewster. Another bridge has been erected, connecting Windsor and Cornish, 521 feet long, 34 wide, consisting of two arches, 144 feet chord, with a pier in the centre 46 by 41 feet, and a triangular front extending up the river about seventy feet, calculated to defend the bridge against the ice. This bridge cost the proprietors 20,000 dollars. It was built under the inspection and direction of Messrs. Spofford and Boynton, after the model of that which these gentlemen erected over the Merrimack at Haverhill.

Connecticut river, in its whole length, is lined on each side with a great number of the most flourishing and pleasant towns in the United States. In its whole course it preserves a distance of from 80 to 100 miles from the sea-coast.

Merrimack river is formed by the confluence of Pemigewasset and Winnipiseogee rivers; the former is a very rapid river, and springs from a white mountain, west of the noted mountains of that name; and before its junction with the Winnipiseogee branch, it receives from the west, Baker's river, a pleasant stream, forty miles in length, and several smaller streams. The Winnipiseogee branch rises from the lake of the same name. The stream which issues from the lake is small, and in its course passes through a bay 12 miles long, and from 3 to 5 broad. A few miles from its entrance into the Pemigewasset, is a place called the Wares, remarkable for the number of fish which are here caught. The river is wide, and so shallow that the fishermen turn the course of the river, in a short time, or compress it into a narrow channel, where they fix their gill nets, and take the fish as they pass up the stream. After the Pemigewasset receives the waters of Winnipiseogee, it takes the name of Merrimack; and after a course of about 90 miles, first in a southerly, and then in an easterly direction, and passing over Hookset, Amoskeag and Pantucket Falls, empties into the sea, 3 miles below Newburyport. From the west it

receives Blackwater, Contoocook, Piscataquoag, Souhegan, Nashua and Concord rivers ; from the east, Bowcook, Suncook, Cohas, Beaver, Spicket and Powow rivers. Contoocook heads near Monadnock mountain, is very rapid, and 10 or 12 miles from its mouth is 100 yards wide. Just before its entrance into the Merrimack, it branches and forms a beautiful island of about 5 or 6 acres. This island is remarkable as being the spot where a Mrs. Duston performed an extraordinary exploit. This woman had been taken by a party of Indians from Haverhill in Massachusetts, and carried to this island. The Indians, 8 or 10 in number, fatigued, and thinking themselves secure, fell asleep. She improved this opportunity to make her escape, and that she might effect it, without danger of being pursued, she, with one of their tomahawks killed them all, and scalped them, and took their canoe, and returned down the river to Haverhill, and carried the scalps to Boston, where she was generously rewarded.

Bridges have been built over this river at Concord and below Amoskeag Falls in New-Hampshire ; the latter, 556 feet long, 80 wide, supported by five piers, besides the abutments on each side. The top of the bridge is 30 feet from the bottom of the river. It contains 200 tons of timber and was built in 57 days. Bridges have been erected on this river also, at Dracut, Andover, Haverhill and Newbury in Massachusetts ; for an account of which see Massachusetts.

" The Piscataqua is the only large river whose whole course is in New-Hampshire. Its head is a pond in the N. E. corner of the town of Wakefield, and its general course thence to the sea, is S. S. E. about 40 miles. It divides New-Hampshire from York county, in the district of Maine, and is called Salmon Fall river, from its head, to the lower falls at Berwick ; where it assumes the name of Newichawannock, which it bears till it meets with Cochecho river, which comes from Dover, when both run together in one channel, to Hilton's Point, where the western branch meets it. From this junction to the sea, the river is so rapid that it never freezes ; the distance is seven miles, and the course generally from S. to S. E. The western branch is formed by Swamscot river, which comes from Exeter, Winnicot river which comes through Greenland, and Lamprey river, which divides Newmarket from Durham ; these empty into a bay four miles wide, called the Great Bay. The water in its further progress, is contracted into a lesser bay, and then it receives Oyster river, which runs through Durham and Back river, which comes from Dover, and at length meets with the main stream at Hilton's Point. The tide rises into all these bays, and branches as far as the lower falls in each river, and forms a most rapid current, especially at the season of the freshets, when the ebb continues about two hours longer than the flood ; and were it not for the numerous eddies, formed by the indentings of the shore, the ferries would then be impassable.

At the lower falls in the several branches of the river, are landing places, whence lumber and other country produce is transported, and vessels or boats from below discharge their lading : So that in each river there is a convenient trading place, not more than twelve or fifteen miles distant from Portsmouth, with which there is constant com-

munication by every tide. Thus the river from its form, and the situation of its branches, is extremely favourable to the purposes of navigation and commerce.

At Dover is a high neck of land between the main branch of Piscataqua and Back river, about two miles long, and half a mile wide, rising gently along a fine road, and declining on each side like a ship's deck. It commands an extensive and variegated prospect of the rivers, bays, adjacent shores, and distant mountains. It has often been admired by travellers as an elegant situation for a city, and by military gentlemen for a fortress. The first settlers pitched here, but the trade has long since been removed to Cochecho Falls, about four miles farther up; and this beautiful spot is almost deserted of inhabitants."*

In the year 1794 a bridge was built over this river, 7 miles above Portsmouth. This is the most respectable bridge in the United States. Its length is 2600 feet, of which 2244 feet are planked. The greater part of this bridge is built of piles driven into the bed of the river in the common way. But that part which engages the attention of travellers, is an arch nearly in the centre of the river, uniting two islands, over water 46 feet deep. This stupendous arch, of 244 feet on the chord, is allowed to be a masterly piece of architecture, planned and built by the ingenious Mr. Timothy Palmer,† of Newburyport. This bridge cost the proprietors sixty-eight thousand dollars.

Ameriscoggin and Saco rivers, are principally in the district of Maine, and will be described under that head.

Lakes.] Winnipiseogee Lake is the largest collection of water in New-Hampshire. It is about 24 miles in length, from south-east to north-west, and of very unequal breadth, from 3 to 12 miles. It is full of islands, and is supplied with numerous rivulets from the surrounding mountains. This lake is frozen about three months in a year, and many sleighs and teams from the circumjacent towns, cross it on the ice. In summer it is navigable its whole length. The landing on the south-east side of the lake is 26 miles from Dover landing where the tide flows.

The other considerable lakes, are Umbagog, in the north-east corner of the state, and partly in the district of Maine, Squam, Sunapee, Great Ossapy and Massabesick pond. It is contemplated to open a canal from this pond, which is 30 miles in circumference, to the river Merrimack, a distance of only four miles. This will render it easy to convey the surrounding forests of oak and pine into Boston harbour, through the Middlesex canal.

In the town of Cockburn is a pond of nine acres, without soundings yet discovered. The bottom of the pond is a fine white sediment, through which a lead sinks as in water. When dried, burned and slackened, it is an excellent lime cement, admitting 3 bushels of sand to one of lime. A stream issues from it, sufficient to turn one or two mills, but the pond visibly receives none. It is in a hollow

* Belknap's Hist. Vol. III. p. 201.

† This gentleman has lately completed an elegant bridge over the Schuylkill.

surrounded, except at the above outlet, by three high hills. No fish live in it. [*Rev. John Willard.*]

Soil and Productions.] Of these there is a great variety in this state. The interval lands upon the margin of the large rivers are the most valuable, because they are overflowed and enriched every year, by the water from the uplands, which brings down a fat slime or sediment. There are generally two strata of interval lands on the borders of the large rivers, one is overflowed every year, the other, which is considerably higher, only in very high freshets. These tracts are of various breadths, according to the near or remote situation of the hills. On Connecticut river, they are from a quarter of a mile to a mile and a half on each side; and it is observable, that they yield wheat in greater abundance and perfection than the same kind of soil, east of the height of land. These lands, in every part of the state yield all the other kinds of grain, in the greatest perfection; but are not so good for pasture as the uplands of a proper quality. The wide spreading hills are generally much esteemed as warm and rich; rocky, moist land, is accounted good for pasture; drained swamps have a deep mellow soil; and the vallies between hills are generally very productive.

Apples and pears are the most common, and the principal fruits cultivated in this state. Yet a great part of the state is so lately settled that they have no orchards, or they are so young, as to produce very little fruit.

Agriculture is the chief business of the inhabitants of this state. Beef, pork, mutton, poultry, wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, pulse, butter, cheese, flax, hemp, hops, esculent plants and roots, (articles which will always find a market) may be produced in abundance in New-Hampshire.

Trade and Manufactures.] The inhabitants in the south-western quarter of this state generally carry their produce to Boston. In the middle and northern part, as far as the Lower Coos, they trade at Portsmouth. Above the Lower Coos, there are yet no convenient roads directly to the sea-coast. The people on the upper branches of Saco river, find their nearest market at Portland, in Maine; and thither the inhabitants of Upper Coos have generally carried their produce; some have gone in the other direction to New-York market. But from a survey made in 1782, it was found that a road from the upper Amonoosuck, which empties into Connecticut river, to the head of navigation, in Kennebeck river, is very practicable; the distance 80 or 90 miles; and for a third part of that distance from Kennebeck, there are already roads and settlements.

The principal articles of export from New-Hampshire, are pine boards, oak plank, staves and heading, clapboards, shingles, hoops, oars, rafters, pine and oak timber, masts, spars, shook-hogsheads, fish dried and pickled, whale oil, tar, flax-seed, beef, corn, oxen and cows, horses, sheep, New-England rum, bricks, pot and pearl-ashes, &c. The total value of exportations for two years ending October 1, 1791, was

	Dols.	cts.
	296,839	51
For the years 1798 and 1799,	723,242	00
An increase in seven years of	426,402	49

The imports consist of West-India rum, gin, molasses, wine, porter, sugars, tea, coffee, cotton, cheese, nails, cordage, twine, salt, sea-coal, steel, lead, grindstones.

The number of vessels which cleared from the port of Piscataqua, in two years, ending October 1, 1791, was 277, whose tonnage amounted to 31,097. Exclusive of those belonging to the Isle of Shoals, about 27 schooners and 20 boats with 250 men, are annually employed in the fisheries. The product of the fisheries in 1791, including that made at the Isle of Shoals:

	Quintals.
Merchantable fish,	5,170
Jamaica do.	14,217
Scale do.	6,463
Total,	25,850

The number of ships and other vessels belonging to the port of Piscataqua, in 1791, was as follows: Above 100 tons, 33; under 100 tons, 50; in all, 83. The amount of shipping belonging to New-Hampshire, in 1796, was 17,462 tons; in 1797, 18,288 tons; in 1798, 19,220 tons.

The people in the country generally manufacture their own clothing, and considerable quantities of tow-cloth for exportation. The other manufactures are pot and pearl-ashes, maple sugar, bricks and pottery, and some iron; not sufficient, however, for home consumption, though it might be made an article of exportation.

Bank.] By act of assembly, of January 1792, a bank, by the name of "The Bank of New-Hampshire," was established at Portsmouth, to continue 50 years; under the management of a President and seven directors. The capital stock is 60,000 dollars; and the stockholders have liberty to increase it to 200,000 dollars specie, and 100,000 dollars in any other estate. Another bank has since been instituted in opposition, but not incorporated.

Population and Character.] The number of inhabitants in 1790 was 141,885. In 1800, 183,858. In 1767 they were estimated at 52,700. The mean increasing ratio per annum, has been 3883. According to this mode of computation, the number of people in New-Hampshire has actually doubled in less than 19 years; 7 of those 19 were years of war. The number of inhabitants according to the late census is given in the preceding table.

Dr. Belknap mentions a number of instances of remarkable longevity in this state. In Barrington, 14 of the first settlers were living in 1785, who were between 80 and 90 years of age. In Londonderry, the first planters lived on an average, to 80 years, and some to 104. One Robert Macklin, a native of Scotland, died at Wakefield, in 1787, aged 115. He frequently walked from Portsmouth to Boston, 66 miles, in one day, and returned the next. He performed the journey the last time, when he was 80 years old.

The inhabitants of New-Hampshire, like the settlers in all new countries, are, in general, a hardy, robust, active, brave people. The advantages of early education have not been so generally enjoyed, as good men have wished, in consequence of which there has been a de-

ficiency of persons properly qualified to fill the various departments of government. But since the revolution, the means of information and improvement have been increased and extended, and this political evil in a great measure remedied.

"The free indulgence of spirituous liquors, has been, and is now, one of the greatest faults of many of the people of New-Hampshire; especially in the neighbourhood of the river Piscataqua and its branches, and wherever business of getting lumber forms the principal employment of the people. In travelling up the country it affords pleasure to observe the various articles of produce and manufacture coming to market: but in travelling down the country it is equally disgustful to meet the same teams returning, loaded with casks of *rum*, along with fish, salt and other necessary articles. Among husbandmen, cider is their common drink. Malt liquor is not so frequently used, as its wholesomeness deserves. But after all, there are no persons more robust and healthy, than those whose only or principal drink is the simple element, with which nature has universally and bountifully supplied this happy land."*

College, Academies, &c.] The only college in this state is in the township of Hanover, situated on a beautiful plain about half a mile east of Connecticut river, in latitude 43° 33'. It was named *Dartmouth College*, after the Right Honourable, *William, Earl of Dartmouth*, who was one of its principal benefactors. It was founded by the late pious and benevolent Dr. *Eleazer Wheelock*, who, in 1769, obtained a royal charter, wherein ample privileges were granted, and suitable provisions made for the education and instruction of youth of the Indian tribes, in reading, writing and all parts of learning which should appear necessary and expedient for civilizing and christianizing the children of Pagans, as well as in all liberal arts and sciences, and also of English youths and any others. The very humane and laudable attempts which have been made to christianize and educate the Indians, have not, either through their native untractableness, or more probably through their rooted aversion to the whites, been crowned with that success which was hoped and expected. Its situation, in a frontier country, exposed it, during the late war, to many inconveniences, which impeded its prosperity. It flourished, however, amidst all its embarrassments, and is now one of the most growing seminaries in the United States.

The funds of this college consist chiefly of lands, amounting to about 80,000 acres, which are increasing in value, in proportion to the growth of the country. Twelve hundred acres lie contiguous to the college, and are capable of the best improvement. Twelve thousand acres lie in Vermont. A tract of 8 miles square was granted by the assembly of New-Hampshire, in 1789. The revenue of the college, arising from the lands, in 1793, amounted annually to £140. By contracts then made, it would amount, in four years after, to £450; and in twelve years to £650. The income from tuition is about £600 per annum.

The number of under graduates is, on an average, about 150. A grammar school, of about 50 or 60 scholars, is annexed to the college.

* Dr. Belknap.

The students are under the immediate government and instruction of a President, who is also professor of civil and ecclesiastical history; a professor of mathematicks, and natural and moral philosophy; a professor of the Latin, Greek, Hebrew and other oriental languages; professor of medicine and chymistry; and one tutor. In 1801, 677 students had received the honours of this college, 178 of which entered the ministry.

The college is furnished with a library of several thousand volumes, and a *philosophical apparatus* tolerably complete. A new college built of wood, 150 by 50 feet, and three stories high, was erected in 1786, containing 36 rooms for students. Its situation is elevated, healthful and pleasant, commanding an extensive prospect to the west. There are three other publick buildings belonging to the college.

There are a number of academies in this state; the principal of which is at Exeter, founded and endowed by the Hon. John Phillips, L. L. D. of Exeter, and incorporated by act of assembly in 1781, by the name of "Phillips' Exeter Academy." It is a very respectable and useful institution, under the inspection of a board of trustees, and the immediate government and instruction of a preceptor and an assistant. It has a fund of £15,000, a part of which is in lands not yet productive. The annual income, in 1796, was £480. It has commonly between 60 and 80 students.

An academy at New-Ipswich was incorporated in 1789: It has a fund of about £1,000 and formerly from 40 to 50 scholars.

There is another academy at Atkinson, founded by the Honourable Nathaniel Peabody, who has endowed it with a donation of 1000 acres of land. It was incorporated in 1790.

At Amherst is an academy incorporated in 1791, by the name of the "Aurean Academy." Similar institutions are forming at Charleston, Concord and other places, which, with the peculiar attention which has lately been paid to schools by the legislature, and the establishment of social libraries in several towns, afford a pleasing prospect of the increase of literature and useful knowledge in this state.

Chief Towns.] Portsmouth is the largest town in this state. It is about two miles from the sea, on the south side of Piscataqua river. It contains about 640 dwelling-houses, and nearly as many other buildings, besides those for publick uses, which are 3 congregational churches, one episcopal, one universalist, a state-house, market-house, four school-houses, and a work-house.

Its harbour is one of the best on the continent, having a sufficient depth of water for vessels of any burden. It is defended against storms by the adjacent land, in such a manner, as that ships may securely ride there in any season of the year. Besides, the harbour is so well fortified by nature, that very little art will be necessary to render it impregnable. Its vicinity to the sea renders it very convenient for naval trade. A light-house, with a single light, stands at the entrance of the harbour. Ships of war have been built here; among others, the America, of 74 guns, launched November, 1782, and presented to the king of France, by the Congress of the United States.

Exeter is 15 miles S. W. from Portsmouth, situated at the head of navigation, upon Swamscot, or Exeter river. The tide rises here 11 feet. It is well situated for a manufacturing town, and has already a duck manufactory, in its infancy, six saw-mills, a fulling-mill, slitting-mill, paper-mill, snuff-mill, two chocolate and ten grist-mills, iron works and two printing-offices. The publick buildings are two congregational churches, a new and elegant academy edifice, a new and handsome court-house, and a gaol. The publick offices of the state are kept here. Formerly this town was famous for ship-building, but this business has not flourished since its interruption by the war.

Concord is a pleasant, flourishing, inland town, situated on the west bank of Merrimack river, 54 miles W. N. W. from Portsmouth. The General Court, of late, have frequently held their sessions here; and from its central situation, and a thriving back country, it will probably soon became the permanent seat of government. Much of the trade of the upper country centres in this town.

Haverhill is a new, thriving town, on the east side of Connecticut river, in Lower Coos. It is the most considerable town in the county of Grafton, and has a well constructed court-house, two churches, one for Congregationalists, and another for Episcopalians. In it is a bed of iron ore, which has yielded some profit to the proprietor; also a quarry of free-stone, from which the people are supplied with chimney pieces, hearth stones, &c. It has also a fulling mill, and an oil-mill, and many excellent mill seats.

Charleston on Connecticut river is a pleasant town, having a number of elegant houses. It is compact, and lies principally on one street. Its publick buildings are a meeting-house, court-house and gaol.

At Dartmouth college, in Hanover, is a handsome, rural village. It stands on an elevated plain, half a mile E. of Connecticut river. It is laid out in squares, and has a number of large and elegant houses. Its publick buildings are the College, Chapel, Academy and Meeting-house.

Keene is pleasantly situated on a plain. It stands principally on one wide street, with handsome houses on each side. Here is a congregational church, court-house and gaol.

Dover, Amherst and Plymouth, are considerable places.

Curiosities and Canal.] In the township of Chester, on the main road from Newburyport to Dartmouth College, is a circular eminence, half a mile in diameter, and 400 feet high, called Rattlesnake hill. On the south side, ten yards from its base, is the entrance of a cave called the *Devil's Den*, in which is a room 15 or 20 feet square and 4 feet high, floored and circled by a regular rock, from the upper part of which are dependent many excrescences, nearly in the form and size of a pear, and when approached by a torch, throw out a sparkling lustre of almost every hue. Many frightful stories have been told of this cave, by those who delight in the marvellous. It is a cold, dreary, gloomy, place.

In the town of Durham is a rock, computed to weigh 60 or 70 tons. It lies so exactly poised on another rock, as to be easily moved with one finger. It is on the top of a hill, and appears to be natural.

In the township of Atkinson, in a large meadow, there is a small island of 6 or 7 acres, which was formerly loaded with valuable pine timber, and other forest wood. When the meadow is overflowed, by means of an artificial dam, this island rises with the water, which is sometimes 6 feet. Near the middle of this island is a small pond, which has been gradually lessening ever since it was known, and is now almost covered with verdure. In this place a pole 50 feet long has disappeared, without finding bottom. In the water of that pond, there have been fish in plenty, which, when the meadow has been overflowed, have appeared there, and when the water has been drawn off, have been left on the meadow, at which time the island settles to its usual place.

In the year 1791, a canal was cut through the marshes, which opens an inland navigation, from Hampton, through Salisbury, into Merrimack river, for about 8 miles. By this passage, loaded boats may be conducted with the utmost ease and safety. A canal and locks are nearly completed, round Amoskeag Falls on the Merrimack.

Religion.] The principal denominations of Christians in this state, are Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Baptists and Quakers. There is a small society of Sandemanians, and another of Universalists, in Portsmouth.

"The people in general throughout the state, are professors of the christian religion, in some form or other. There is, however, a sort of wise men, who pretend to reject it; but they have not yet been able to substitute a better in its place."*

Constitution.] The Constitution of this state is similar to that of Massachusetts.

History.] The first discovery made by the English of any part of New-Hampshire, was in 1614, by Captain John Smith, who ranged the shore from Penobscot to Cape Cod, ; and in this route, discovered the river Piscataqua. On his return to England, he published a description of the country, with a map of the coast, which he presented to Prince Charles, who gave it the name of NEW-ENGLAND. The first settlement was made in 1623.

New-Hampshire was for many years under the jurisdiction of the governour of Massachusetts, yet they had a separate legislature. They ever bore a proportionable share of the expenses and levies in all enterprises, expeditions and military exertions, whether planned by the colony or the crown. In every stage of the opposition that was made to the encroachments of the British Parliament, the people, who ever had a high sense of liberty, cheerfully bore their part. At the commencement of hostilities, indeed, while their council was appointed by royal *mandamus*, their patriotick ardour was checked by these crown officers. But when freed from this restraint, they flew eagerly to the American standard, when the voice of their country declared for war ; and the troops had a large share of the hazard and fatigue, as well as of the glory of accomplishing the late revolution.

* Dr. Belknap.

For the history of this state, the reader is referred to the Rev. Dr. Belknap's, published complete, in 3 vols. 8vo. in 1792, written in a pure, neat, historick style. The two first volumes contain the history of New-Hampshire; the third contains "A geographical description of the state, with sketches of its natural history, productions and improvements, laws and government," and is replete with curious and useful information, and interspersed with many ingenious and philosophical remarks. From this volume much assistance has been derived, in the foregoing account of this state.

DISTRICT OF MAINE.

[PART OF MASSACHUSETTS.]

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Average length 200 } between { 4° 29′ and 10° 15′ E. lon. fr. Phil-
Average breadth 200 } { 43° and 48° 15′ N. lat. [adelphia

Containing 40,000 square miles, or 25,600,000 acres.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED N. by Lower Canada, E. by the province of New-Brunswick; S. by the Atlantick Ocean; W. by New-Hampshire, from which it is divided for about 40 miles, by Piscataqua river, and thence by a line drawn N. two degrees W. about 120 miles, to lat. 45° 30′ N. to the province of Lower Canada.*

The Old Province of Maine (included in the above limits) is bounded on the west by New-Hampshire; south by the Atlantick Ocean, and north and north-east by the land called in some maps, Sagadahock. It was supposed at the time of its being made a province, to have been 120 miles square; but by a settlement of the line, in 1737, on the part adjoining New-Hampshire, the form of the land was reduced from a square to that of a diamond. The Old Province contained, according to Douglas, about 9,600 square miles.

Divisions.] The district of Maine is divided into seven counties, viz.

* "Report of land committee on the eastern boundary and the true St. Croix," made to the general court of Massachusetts, January 1794, on file. Commissioners from the American and British governments in the year 1799, settled the boundary line between Maine and New-Brunswick, as exhibited in the map, which see.

Counties.	No. of inhabitants. 1790	1800	Chief Towns.
York	28,821	37,729	York
Cumberland	25,450	37,921	Portland, lat. 43° 40′
Kennebeck*	———	24,394	Augusta
Lincoln	29,962	30,100	Wiscasset
Hancock	9,549	16,316	Castine
Washington	2,758	4,436	Machias
Oxford†	———	———	
Total,	96,540	150,896	

Face of the Country, Soil and Climate.] The district of Maine, though an elevated tract of country, cannot be called mountainous. A great proportion of the lands are arable and exceedingly fertile, particularly between Penobscot and Kennebeck rivers. The counties of York and Cumberland are, to a great extent, light and lean; a large proportion of them being pine plains. On both sides of Kennebeck river, to the distance of about 30 miles, and from the tide water about 70 or 80 miles up the river, the land is generally excellent, making a square of 4,800 miles.

On some parts of the sea-coast, the lands are but indifferent; but this defect might easily be remedied, by manuring it with a marine vegetable, called rock-weed, which grows on the rocks between high and low water mark, all along the shores, and from the muscle beds which are formed on the flats and in coves on various parts of the sea shore. This rock-weed makes a most excellent manure, and the supply is immense. It generally grows, in this district, on all the shores that are washed by the sea; and the breadth of the border is in proportion to the height the tide rises, which, in the eastern part of the district, is nearly 30 feet. It is estimated that there are 4000 acres of this rock-weed on this coast, and that each acre will produce annually 20 loads, making in the whole 80,000 loads of the best manure, 10 loads of which spread upon an acre, is reckoned sufficient for three years. The country has a large proportion of dead swamps, and sunken lands, which are easily drained, and leave a rich fat soil. The interior country is represented as being generally of an excellent soil, well adapted both for tillage and pasture. The lands are easily cleared, having but little under brush. The hills or swells are in common pretty good land, producing maple, beech, &c. and affording excellent pasture.

The district of Maine may naturally be considered in three divisions. The *first* comprehending the tract lying east of Penobscot river: The *second* and best tract, lying between Penobscot and Kennebeck rivers: The *third*, first settled and most populous at present, west of Kennebeck river.

"The season for vegetation, in the northern part of this country, is about fifteen days shorter than it is in the southern, or rather south-

* A new county, taken from the northern part of Lincoln, and incorporated Feb. 20, 1799.

† A new county taken from the northern part of York and Cumberland counties, Feb. 1805.

western part; but there is no great difference in the quantity of snow which falls in the various parts of it.

"The idea adopted on the first settlement of the country, was, that the severity of the winters would render the climate unhealthy and uncomfortable; and that the soil would never be productive of those vegetables, and of that kind of sustenance which habit had rendered necessary to the life of Europeans: But this is now found to be a mistake.

"The soil on the sea coast is hard, and reluctant to the plough; but farther back from the sea, it is yielding; and the crops of grain are equal to what can be procured in the western parts of New-England.

"The weather in the district of Maine, as well as in every part of North-America, is found to be colder, than it is in the same degree of latitude on the eastern side of the Atlantick.

"One of our own philosophers has lately suggested a reason for the coldness of our country. Dr. Holyoke imagines it to be, in a great measure, owing to the great number of evergreens in our woods. This idea is new, but is a very satisfactory one, and applies itself with great force in the district of Maine, where the forests are composed, almost altogether, of hemlock, spruce, pine and fir trees.

"However disagreeable the winters of a northern climate may be, yet the northern part of every country is more healthy than that part which is nearer to the equator; and we know that the human race is increased between the 40th and 50th degrees of latitude, much beyond what it is any where else." [*Sullivan.*]

The weather in this country is more regular in the winter than in more southern states. Frosts come on here often in September and always before the middle of October. The severe cold commences about the middle of December, and spring opens the last of March; during this time the ponds and fresh water rivers are generally passable on the ice, and sleighing is seldom entirely interrupted by thaws, as is common in the three southern New-England states. Although vegetation, in the spring, commences earlier in these states than in the district of Maine, yet in the latter it is much more rapid. The elevation of the lands in general, the purity of the air, which is rendered sweet and salubrious by the balsamick qualities* of many of the forest trees; the limpid streams, both large and small, which abundantly water this country, and the regularity of the weather, all unite to render this one of the healthiest countries in the world. The cold is less constant on the sea-coast than in the interior. By the first of March snow is generally gone on the shore. Of late the winters in this country are more moderate and have less snow than 20 years ago. Corn brought from Connecticut and the vicinity of Boston, though it grows to a good size, does not ripen so well, as that obtained further E. or N. The further north the smaller the corn. On the sea-coast apple trees do not thrive well. They become lousy and soon die; but 15 miles back they flourish. In Kennebeck county con-

* This idea of the *balsamick qualities* of trees contributing to the salubrity of the air, is, by some, thought to be founded on erroneous principles.

siderable cider has been made. Pear trees grow well in all parts of the district.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.] This district has an extensive sea-coast, furnished with an abundance of safe and commodious harbours; besides which there is security given to navigation, on some part of the coast, by what is called the *inland passage*. Almost the whole coast N. E. of Portland is lined with islands, among which vessels may generally anchor with safety.

The country of which we are speaking is watered by many large and small rivers. The principal are the following, as you proceed from east to west. St. Croix, by the natives called Magacadava, a short river, (issuing from a large pond in the vicinity of *St. John's river*,) remarkable *only* for its forming a part of the eastern boundary of the United States. This river falls into the north side of Passamaquoddy Bay, 12 miles N. E. and by N. of the Schoodick river. The St. John's is the largest river connected with Maine, and though its widest part is within the British territory, yet in part it is a boundary of the United States: On its banks lie some fertile tracts of land. Next is Passamaquoddy river, which, with the Schoodick from the west, fall by one mouth into Passamaquoddy Bay. Opposite Mount Desert Island, which is about 15 miles long and 12 broad, rising in nine lofty summits, often above the clouds, Union river empties into a large bay. Between Schoodick and Union rivers are Machias, Chandler's, Pleasant and Naraguagus rivers, all inconsiderable. Thirty or forty miles west of Union river is the noble Penobscot, which rises in two branches from the highlands. Between the source of the west fork, and its junction with the east, is Moosehead lake, 30 or 40 miles long and 15 wide. The eastern branch passes through several smaller lakes. From *the Forks*, as they are called, the Penobscot Indians pass to Canada, up either branch, principally the west, the source of which they say is not more than twenty miles from the waters that empty into the river St. Lawrence. At the Forks is a remarkable high mountain. From the Forks down to Indian Old Town, situated on an island in this river, is about 60 miles, 40 of which the water flows in a still smooth stream, and in the whole distance there are no falls to interrupt the passing of boats. In this distance the river widens and embraces a large number of small islands; and about half way receives two considerable tributary streams, one from the east and the other from the west, whose mouths are nearly opposite each other. About sixty rods below Indian Old Town, are the Great Falls, where is a carrying place of about twenty rods; thence twelve miles to the head of the tide, there are no falls to obstruct boats. Vessels of 80 tons come within a mile of the head of the tide. Thence 35 miles to the head of the bay, to the site of old Fort Pownal, the river flows in a pretty straight course, and is easily navigated. Passing by Majabagaduse, on the east, 7 miles, and Owl's Head about twenty miles further, on the west, you enter the ocean.

This river, "for beauty and usefulness, may be considered as the first in the district. There is none that equals it for ease of navigation, or exceeds it in plentifulness of fish, the excellency of its timber, or the commodiousness of its mill privileges." [*Sullivan.*]

Proceeding westward over St. George's, Pamaquid, Damariscotta, and Sheepscot rivers, which extend but a little way into the country, you come to Kennebeck, which, next to Penobscot, is the finest river in this country.

Twenty miles from its mouth and five from the Chops, the island called Swan Island, divides the waters of the river. This island is found to be seven miles long, and was anciently the seat of the Sachem Kenebis, who sold, or pretended to sell all the country on both sides of the river, and also the island. The river Kennebeck, no doubt, took its present appellation from a race of Sagamores of the name of *Kenebis*. The waters which form Swan Island, are navigable on both sides of it, but the channel on the east side is mostly used. Thirty-eight miles from the sea, we find a small island, called by the natives Nahunkeag, which signifies the land where eels are taken. Within three miles of this island, a small river coming west, from ponds which are in the town of Winthrop, runs into the Kennebeck, and is known by the name of Cobbeseconte, as the English pronounce it, but by the Indians was called Cobbisseconteag, which in their language is the land where sturgeon are taken.

Six miles further up the river we find the head of the navigable waters. This is a bason forty-six miles from the sea, and very commodious for the anchoring of vessels.

On the east bank of the small fall which terminates the navigation of the Kennebeck, is Fort Western, which was erected in the year 1752. A strong and handsome bridge has been built over the river at this place. From that fort to Teconick Fall it is eighteen miles. This is a great fall of water, probably one of the largest in New-England. Mills of various kinds crowd upon the rushing columns of foaming water; a lively village stands on the shore. The whole afford a picturesque and delightful prospect. The largest falls on the Kennebeck are at Karatunk about 40 miles above Teconick. A little below the falls on the eastern side of the river stands old Fort Halifax, in the angle formed by the entrance of Sebastacook, which swells the Kennebeck one third. The fort was built by order of governour Shirley in 1754. The Sebastacook, comes from lakes nearly north from its mouth; and in its windings receives brooks and small rivers, for the space of 150 miles.

Thirty miles above fort Halifax, as the river's course is, the stream called Sandy River, loses its waters in the Kennebeck, at the point where the ancient town of Norridgewock was. Forty miles, or near that distance further up, the river Kennebeck takes a south-westward course.

The Kennebeck turning again westward, receives the eastern branch, at 50 miles distance from Norridgewock. The main branch of the Kennebeck, winding into the wilderness, forms a necessity for several carrying places, one of which, called the Great Carrying Place, is five miles across, and the river's course gives a distance of 35 miles, for that which was gained by five on the dry land. At one hundred miles distance, or perhaps more, from the mouth of the eastern branch, the source of the main or western branch of the Kennebeck is found extended a great distance along side the river Chaudiere, which carries the waters from the high lands into the St. Lawrence.

There are no lakes, but some few small ponds and morasses at the source of this branch. The carrying-place from navigable waters in it, to navigable waters in the river Chaudiere, is only five miles.

The eastern branch of the Kennebeck, which unites with the other above Norridgewock, issues from a body of waters which lie north about twenty miles from the confluence of the two branches. These waters are called Moose Lake. This lake is of an irregular figure, and contains three times as much water as Lake George. There are very high mountains to the north and west of this lake, from which issue many streams which fall into the St. Lawrence.

On the banks of the Kennebeck are great quantities of timber, and in its waters are several species of fish; the most valuable are the salmon, sturgeon, shad and alewives.

The river Kennebeck forms the nearest sea-port for the people on the upper part of the river Connecticut.* Several surveys have been made across the country, and the land is said to be capable of furnishing a good road at an ordinary expense. The town of Portland may consider this as a rivalship to their claim upon the country beyond the White Mountains, to which there can be no reasonable objection, because this kind of emulation tends much to a promotion of the publick interest.†

Sheepscot river is navigable between 20 and 30 miles, and empties into the ocean a little to the east of Kennebeck. On this river is the important port of Wiscasset, in the township of Pownalborough. See *Wiscasset*.

Ameriscoggin, now more generally called Androscoggin, properly speaking, is but the main western branch of the Kennebeck. Its sources are north of Lake Umbagog. Its course is southwardly, till it approaches near the White Mountains, from which it receives Moose and Peabody rivers; and then turns to the east, and then south-east, in which course it passes within two miles of the sea-coast, and turning north runs over Pejepscot falls into Merry Meeting Bay, where it forms a junction with the Kennebeck, 20 miles from the sea. Formerly, from this bay to the sea, the confluent stream was called Sagadahock. The lands on this river are very good. Stevens's river heads within a mile of Merry Meeting Bay. A canal, uniting these waters, has lately been opened. Cussen's river is between Freeport and North-Yarmouth. Royal's river empties itself into the sea in North-Yarmouth. Presumscut is fed by Sebago lake, and empties into Casco Bay, east of Portland. Nonesuch river passes to the sea through Scarborough. It receives its name from its extraordinary freshets. Dunstan and Spurwink are small rivers as you pass west.

Saco river is one of the three largest rivers in this district. The principal part of its waters fall from the White Mountains. Its course, some distance from its source, is southwardly; it then suddenly bends to the east and crosses into the district of Maine, and then makes a large bend to the north-east, east and south-west, embracing the fine township of Fryeburg, in the county of York. Its

* The distance was measured in 1793, and found to be 90 miles from the tide in Kennebeck to the Upper Coos.

† Sullivan's Hist. Maine.

general course thence to the sea is south-east. Great and Little Ossapy rivers fall into it from the west. There are several noble cataracts in this river. It is navigable for ships to Saco Falls, about six miles from the sea. Here the river is broken by Indian Island, over which is the post road. A bridge is thrown over each of its branches. A number of mills are erected here, to which logs are floated from 40 to 50 miles above; and vessels can come quite to the mills to take in the lumber. Four million feet of pine boards were annually sawed at these mills before the war. Biddeford and Pepperelborough lie on either side of the mouth of this river. Mousom, York and Cape Neddock rivers, in the county of York, are short and inconsiderable streams.

We have already mentioned the most considerable lakes which are known in this district. Lake Sebacook, 18 miles N. W. of Portland, in extent is equal to two large townships, and is connected with Long Pond, on the N. W. by Sungo river. The whole extent of these waters is nearly 30 miles N. W. and S. E.

In Maine there is a profusion of lakes, ponds and inlets of the sea. The maps of the globe now extant, exhibit no other country of equal dimensions with the *inhabited* part of Maine, possessing a greater number of these. Taking the head of the Kennebeck tide-waters, as a centre, and describing a circle equal to Switzerland, this circle will contain as many acres of water as Switzerland. This collection of waters then may be noticed as a singularity in Maine. Some of these are the largest in the United States, excepting those connected with St. Lawrence. Maine also when drained, will be as free from *morasses* as Switzerland; which is another memorable particular.

Maine does not abound in great mountains; so that the prospects are less grand than beautiful. The boundary mountains, said to exist between Maine and Canada, are for the most part imaginary; as surveyors, hunters and those concerned in Gen. Arnold's expedition, declare, with which the French accounts agree; though the treaty of peace in 1782—3 with Great-Britain, supposes the existence of mountains or high lands running in a continued line between Maine and Canada.

Bays and Capes.] The principal bays are Passamaquoddy, Machias, Frenchman's Penobscot, Casco and Wells. Of these Frenchman's, Penobscot and Casco are the most remarkable. They are full of islands. Long-Island, in the centre of Penobscot Bay, is 15 miles in length, and from 2 to three in breadth, and forms an incorporated township by the name of Islesborough, containing about 400 inhabitants. On a fine peninsula on the east side of the bay, the British built a fort and made a settlement, which is now the shire town in the county of Hancock. Frenchman's Bay lies between 44° 44′ and 45° N. lat. It has the main on the W. N. and E. Mount Desert on the S. and W. S. W. Schoodick point is the eastern extremity of the bay; Long-Island the western. These two points, by estimation, are 4 leagues distant from each other. From each of these points to the bottom of the bay, which is Sullivan's Harbour, is 8 leagues. About 4 leagues from those points, is a range of Islands, called the Porcupines, which lie in a crescent, and landlock the inner harbour, leaving

four passages, two of which have 30 or 40 fathoms of water, and not a ledge or rock in the way. A cable's length from these islands there is 20 fathoms of water. Within the Porcupines is a most beautiful harbour, large enough to hold 200 sail at anchor, with 18 or 20 fathoms of water, a bottom smooth and muddy. Within the bay are four harbours where a thousand sail might ride secure from every storm. The tide here rises 22 feet. In different parts of Frenchman's bay are 24 saw-mills and five grist-mills. The points of Casco Bay are Cape Small Point on the east, and Cape Elizabeth on the west. This bay is about 25 miles wide, and 14 deep, forming a most excellent harbour for vessels of any burden, and interspersed with a multitude of islands, some of which are nearly large enough for townships. Wells Bay lies between Cape Porpoise and Cape Neddock.* The tides of Maine increase as they flow east. In the Bay of Fundy they are as high as in any part of the world.

Productions.] The soil of this country, in general, where it is properly fitted to receive the seed, appears to be very friendly to the growth of wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, hemp, and flax, as well as for the productions of almost all kinds of culinary roots and plants, and for English grass; and also for Indian corn, especially if the stalk be short. A short stalk gives least shade to the ground; and carries its ear more in the way of reflected heat from the earth. As we proceed eastward the Indian corn gradually becomes smaller; seed brought from the south or west does not ripen well. Were there more farmers in Maine, and fewer lumberers and new settlers, it might export corn. Kennebeck is becoming one of the most remarkable quarters of the United States for *apple orchards*. Hops are the spontaneous growth of this country. It is yet problematical whether apple and other fruit trees will flourish in the northern and eastern parts of this district; and on the sea-coast they become lousy and die. It is said, however, that a century ago, there were good orchards within the county of Washington, about the bay of Passamaquoddy, which were destroyed after Col. Church broke up the French settlements at that place. In the county of York, fruit is nearly as plenty as in New-Hampshire. It is found by various experiments that apple-trees often flourish, after the ground has been for several years opened to the sun, and the manure formed by the fallen leaves has been mixed with the earth, in places where before they would not grow. This has been found to be fact, particularly in the town of Lancaster in the northern part of New-Hampshire. Peaches are scarcely known, but hopes are entertained that they may in time be cultivated, with the help of some precautions. Plums, small cherries, small pears, grapes, raspberries, gooseberries, currants, blackberries and cranberries, in larger or smaller quantities, are among the wild fruits of Maine. This country is uncommonly good for grazing, and supports large stocks of neat cattle.

This country abounds in white pine and spruce trees, suitable for masts, boards or shingles. The white pine is perhaps, of all others the most useful and important; no wood will supply its place in

* There are many other bays of less note on this coast; for an account of which, and a minute description of the rivers which intersect this country, the reader is referred to Judge Sullivan's History, page 13 to 42.

building. Maple, beach, red, white and grey oak, and yellow birch, may be considered as the principal growth of this country. The birch is a large sightly tree, and is used for cabinet work, and receives a polish little inferior to mahogany. The outer bark, which consists of a great number of layers, when separated, is as smooth and soft as the best writing paper, and in some cases is a tolerable substitute for it. The moist lands produce fir. This tree is fit neither for timber nor fuel; but it yields a balsam that is highly prized. The balsam is contained in small protuberances like blisters, under the smooth bark of the tree. The fir is an evergreen resembling the spruce, a tall, straight, and beautiful tree. There are also elms, poplars, and ashes. Also bass, horn-beam, butter nut, balm of Gilead and hemlock trees. The best land yields the most noble pines. Birds are not numerous, but are increasing, in Maine.

A square of about ninety miles of good land is found on or near the Kennebeck and the western side of the Penobscot, beginning at a little distance from the sea. Few better tracts of upland are found in such a connected body in the known parts of the United States. There is little morass from the sea up to Norridgewock on the Kennebeck, whose banks are generally bold and well defined.

Under this article, the following remarks of general Lincoln merit a place.

"From the different rivers, in this eastern country, waters may be drawn for mills, and all water works; besides, many are the advantages which arise to a country, through which streams of water are so liberally interspersed as they are in this; and especially when they abound, as many of these do, with fish of different kinds; among them are the salmon, shad, alewive and others, which seek the quiet waters of the Lakes, as the only places in which they can with safety lodge their spawns. From this source, the inland country may draw a supply of fish, equal to all their demands, (if they are not interrupted in their passage) which are rendered peculiarly valuable, as their annual return is at a season of the year when most needed, and when they can be cured with very little salt; so that a long and free use of them will not be injurious to the health of the inhabitants. The certainty of the supply adds to its value. These fish, as is supposed, and of which there cannot, I think, be a doubt, return to the same waters yearly, in which they were spawned, unless some obstruction be thrown in their way. Whilst the people inland may be supplied with these fish, the inhabitants of the sea-coast may be supplied with the cod and other ground fish, which are allured quite into their harbours, in pursuit of the river fish, and may be taken with the greatest ease, as no other craft is necessary, in many places, than a common canoe. Great advantages arise also, to those who live on the sea-coast, from the shell-fish, viz. the lobster, the scallop and the clam." Within a few years the salmon fishery, in the bays and around the islands, have become a very considerable object to the inhabitants. The legislature has by law provided, that sluice-ways be kept open in the several rivers in this district, for a certain number of days in the year, for the purpose of letting the salmon and other fish pass up, in order to deposite their spawn. The benefit of this regulation begins already to be felt.

Animals.] Numerous flocks of deer, and some *moose* of a large size, formerly inhabited Maine; there are few now to be seen, especially in the western parts of it. Some deer are killed in Mount Desert Island every winter.

The animals common to northern climates, such as the fox, bear, wolf, beaver, &c. are found here; and an animal, called by the natives, *buccarebow*, of a size between the moose and the deer, was formerly found in this country. Cattle and horses are here easily raised; and the sheep, on the Kennebeck river are larger than in Massachusetts proper, the mutton is of a higher flavour, and the fleeces much heavier.

The rattle-snake is the only poisonous serpent in this district; and is seldom seen. Flies, except for a few weeks in the heat of the summer, are not troublesome.

The sheep on the Kennebeck suffer from the heat of the summer; but never from the cold of the winter; except the lambs; which however, in one or two days after their birth, become dry in their coats, and brave the winter like their parents.

Commerce and Manufactures.] From the first settlement of Maine until the year 1774 or 1775, and in many places, till 10 or 12 years later, the inhabitants generally followed the lumber trade to the neglect of agriculture, and people in the country were surprised to find Indian corn, rye, potatoes and flax grow in their fields. This afforded an immediate profit. Large quantities of corn and other grain were annually imported from Boston and other places, without which it was supposed the inhabitants could not have subsisted. But the late war, by rendering these resources precarious, put the inhabitants upon their true interest, i. e. the cultivation of their lands. The inhabitants now raise a sufficient quantity for their own consumption; though too many are still more fond of the axe than of the plough. They would export from the old farms, were not the produce expended within the country in supporting those who work on new farms, as also in mills, and as artificers. As it is, they export from the Kennebeck, in the shape of cattle or otherwise, more than they import.

On new farms in the back parts of the counties of Kennebeck, Hancock and Lincoln there is at least, four times the quantity of corn raised on burnt land to what is raised on old farms. Col. Pater of Farmington raised on burnt land, on his farm in one year, 1200 bushels of corn and 300 bushels of rye.

Their wool and flax are very good; hemp has lately been tried with great success. Almost every family manufacture wool and flax into cloth, and make husbandry utensils of every kind for their own use.

Exports.] This country abounds with lumber of various kinds, such as masts, which of late, however, have become scarce; white pine boards, ship timber, and every species of split lumber manufactured from pine and oak; these are exported from the different ports in immense quantities. Dried fish furnishes an article of export, as do also pickled fish, such as salmon, shad, the alewive, &c.

Minerals.] Mountain and bog iron ore are found in some parts, and works have been erected for its manufacture.

There is a species of stone in Lebanon, in the county of York, which yields copperas and sulphur. General Knox has found various minerals on his tract. Iron is abundant on the Kennebeck, if we may judge from the frequent disturbance given to the magnetick needle, and the stones, &c. found; but none is wrought. Other minerals are found, to which no attention is paid.

State of Literature.] Bowdoin College, in Brunswick, was incorporated in 1795. It is named after the Hon. James Bowdoin, its most liberal patron, whose benefactions in money and lands amount to about 10,000 dollars. The legislature has given 5 townships to be added to its funds. It is under the government of a board of 13 trustees, the President being one, ex officio, and a board of 45 overseers, 15 of whom make a quorum. All bills originate with the trustees. A building is erected of brick, 50 by 40 feet, three stories high. Academies in Hallowell, Berwick, Fryeburg, Bath, Hamden and Machias have been incorporated by the legislature, and endowed with handsome grants of the publick lands. Another at Portland has been instituted, but is not yet endowed. And it is but just to observe, that town schools are maintained in most of the towns, and in many of the plantations that are able to defray the expense; and a spirit of general improvement is increasing.

Chief Towns.] Portland, the most considerable town of Maine, is situated on a promontory in Casco Bay, and was formerly a part of Falmouth. In July, 1786, this part of the town, being the most populous and mercantile, and situated on the harbour, together with the islands which belong to Falmouth, was incorporated by the name of Portland. It has a most excellent, safe and capacious harbour, which is seldom or never completely frozen over. It is near the main ocean, and is easy of access. The inhabitants carry on a considerable foreign trade, build ships, and are largely concerned in the fishery. It is one of the most thriving commercial towns in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. Although three fourths of it was laid in ashes by the British fleet in 1775, it has been since rebuilt, with large additions. Among its publick buildings are three churches, two for Congregationalists, and one for Episcopalians, and a handsome court-house.

A light-house was erected in 1790 on a point of land called Portland Head, at the entrance of the harbour. It is a stone edifice, 72 feet high, exclusive of the lanthorn. There is another light-house on Seguin, at the mouth of Kennebeck.

The following directions are to be observed in coming into the harbour. Bring the light to bear N. N. W. then run for it, allowing a small distance on the larboard hand; and when abreast of the same, then run N. by W. This course will give good anchorage from half a mile to a mile and a half. No variation of the compass is allowed.

York is 74 miles N. E. from Boston, and 9 from Portsmouth. It is divided into two parishes of Congregationalists. York river, which is navigable for vessels of 250 tons, 6 or 7 miles from the sea, passes through the town. Over this river, about a mile from the sea, a

wooden bridge was built in 1761, 270 feet long, exclusive of the wharves at each end, which reach to the channel, and 25 feet wide. The bridge stands on thirteen piers; and was planned and conducted by Major Samuel Sewall, an ingenious mechanick and a native of the town. In the year 1793, this bridge was rebuilt on the original plan. The model of Charles river bridge was taken from this, and was built under the superintendance of the same gentleman. It has also served as the model of Malden and Beverly bridges, and has been imitated, even in Europe, by those ingenious American artists, Messieurs Coxe and Thompson. This town was settled as early as 1630, and was then called Agamenticus, from a remarkable high hill in it, of that name, a noted land-mark for mariners. It is in lat. 43° 16′. About the year 1640, a great part of this town was incorporated by Sir Ferdinando Gorges, by the name of Gorgiana. He appointed a mayor and aldermen, and made it a free port. In 1652, when it fell under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, it assumed the name of York, which it has since retained.

Hallowell is a flourishing town, situated near the head of the tide-waters on the Kennebeck river, lat. 44° 16′ N. The publick buildings are a congregational church and an academy. The interest of its funds, which are accumulating, afford a handsome salary for the preceptor. The place is healthy, and its population has been rapid. It lies on both sides of the river, contains 28,600 acres, and is 40 miles from the sea, and 55 from Portland.

Augusta lies on each side of the Kennebeck, at the head of the tide, above Hallowell, of which it was a part till 1797.

A bridge connects the two parts of the town. The principal settlement is on the west bank of the river, and is a compact, pleasant village, from which there is a delightful prospect of the river, the bridge, and of fertile, well cultivated farms and handsome houses, across the river. Here is a congregational church, a gaol and court-house.

Wiscasset is a flourishing, commercial place. It is the compact part of the township of Pownalborough, and contains about 140 dwelling-houses, some elegant and many spacious stores, and about two thirds of the inhabitants of the whole town, which, in 1798, amounted to about 2000. This commercial village is situated about 20 miles N. of Seguin island, (which is in N. lat. 43° 41′ W. lon. 68° from London) on the western branch of Sheepscot river. The entrance into the Sheepscot, for 7 or 8 miles above Seguin island, has the appearance of a large bay, which, 5 miles below Wiscasset, has narrowed to the width, in some places, of little more than half a mile; the banks are high, and the depth of water 15 or 20 fathoms. The river as high as Wiscasset, affords safe navigation for the largest vessels. Two British men-of-war, in 1775, came up to the town, where the river is a mile wide, and where, at some of the wharves, (there are 10 in number) merchant vessels of 500 tons, loaded, lie afloat. Vessels of 100 tons ascend the Sheepscot, to Newcastle, 4 miles above Wiscasset, where is a small fall in the bed of the river. The tide water and boats ascend 5 miles above this place, where the river becomes small, and affords some fine mill-seats. Over this river half

a mile above the fall, is a toll bridge, 600 feet long, built in 1795. Wiscasset has four streets running parrallel with the river, crossed at right angles, 140 feet wide, leading to the long-wharf, which is 550 feet in length. On this street stand the publick buildings, which are a congregational church and court-house. This village is a port of entry and delivery, and has a post-office. In 1798, 30 square-rigged vessels, amounting to about 10,000 tons, were owned here; they were employed chiefly in the West-India trade, which has been very profitable. The town is healthy. More people die of a consumption than of any other disease.

Machias, Castine, Bangor, Camden, Waldoborough, Brunswick, Bath, North-Yarmouth, Berwick, Biddeford, Wells and Kittery, are towns of considerable importance, and some of them very flourishing.

Population, Character and Religion.] In 1790, there were 96,540 souls in Maine. In 1800, 151,719. In the year 1750 there were not 10,000 in all this territory. A part of the county of Kennebeck, which in 1790 had about 7000 inhabitants, in 1800 had about 18,000; and more than half the increase was from births, including the children of the new-comers. It has been partly peopled by emigrants from Europe, but principally by people from other parts of New-England, and by a rapid natural increase. There are no peculiar features in the character of the people of this district, to distinguish them from their neighbours in New-Hampshire and Vermont. Placed as they are in like circumstances, they are, like them, a brave, hardy, enterprising, industrious, hospitable people. The prevailing religious denominations are Congregationalists and Baptists; there are a few Quakers, Methodists, Episcopalians and Roman Catholicks.

In 1794 there were 40 ministers of the Congregational denomination in this district, and eleven vacant churches of the same denomination. There were at this period a considerable number of Anabaptist preachers, who were chiefly itinerant, two Presbyterian ministers, one Episcopalian, and a Roman Catholick missionary at Passamaquoddy. Besides these, there were 100 new towns and plantations in which no churches of any denomination were formed, many of which, (especially in the 3 lower counties) have, for a number of years past, received religious instructions from missionaries sent among them by the society for propagating the gospel, and the Massachusetts and Hampshire missionary societies.

The baptists are divided into Free-will and Calvinistick baptists. The free-will baptists are irregular enthusiasts, but they are much the smallest party. In the lower county for 100 miles there is not one of them. In Hancock county are but a few baptists. In the 4 lower counties are now 33 congregational churches and 17 settled ministers.

Indians.] The remains of the Penobscot tribe are the *only* Indians who take up their residence in this district. They consist of about 100 families, and live together in regular society at Indian Old Town, which is situated on an island of about 200 acres, in Penobscot river, just above the great falls. They are Roman Catholicks,

and have a priest, who resides among them and administers the ordinances. They have a decent house for publick worship, with a bell, and another building where they meet to transact the publick business of their tribe. In their assemblies all things are managed with the greatest order and decorum. The Sachems form the legislative and executive authority of the tribe; though the heads of all the families are invited to be present at their periodical publick meetings. The tribe is said to be increasing, in consequence of an obligation laid, by the Sachems, on the young people, to marry early.

In a former war this tribe lost their lands; but at the commencement of the last war, the Provincial Congress forbid any person settling on the lands from the head of the tide in Penobscot river, included in lines drawn six miles from the river on each side, i. e. a tract twelve miles wide intersected in the middle by the river. They, however, consider that they have a right to hunt and fish as far as the mouth of the Bay of Penobscot extends. This was their original right, in opposition to any other tribe, and they now occupy it.

The Indians on the Kennebeck were called the Norridgewock Indians; but they have become nearly extinct by expeditions to Crown Point, the massacre they suffered at Norridgewock, rum and the small pox. There are Indians belonging to the St. John's. Among the other singularities of Maine is this: that though the chief of it is in woods, and they border on Canada and other British possessions, they have no fear of Indians. Hence new farms are settled without impediment, in the remotest of their woods; and the axe is the only weapon used. Hence much industry and good morals appear in the settlements in the interior of Maine, where the land tillers are good, and no lumber is cut.

Constitution.] The same as Massachusetts, the two divisions being incorporated under one common government.

Eastern Lands.] In the district of Maine are large tracts of land belonging to the state, styled the Eastern lands.

A committee for the sale of these lands was appointed by the General Court, in 1783, and from the report, in June, 1795, it appears, that they had sold, and contracted to sell in behalf of the Commonwealth, of these lands, 4,509,808 acres, exclusive of the contract with Jackson and Flint for 2,839,453 acres; and that they had paid into the state Treasury, in money and securities £245,375 9 0

Amount of sums remaining due to the state, exclusive of the sums due upon contract with Jackson and Flint, 33,426 10 10

278,801 19 10

Amount of expenses attending the business (deducted) 9,793 11 8

Leaving to the Commonwealth, net balance 269,005 8 2

From the above mentioned report it also appears, that there were, (June, 1795) belonging to the state and not under contract, 956,407 acres, the greatest part of which had been surveyed. This was exclusive of the above mentioned contract with Jackson and Flint, which includes 103,680 acres, reserved for masts by the state.

Besides these surveyed lands, there were, belonging to the Commonwealth, by estimate of said Committee,

		Acres.
In the county of York	about	200,000
In the County of Cumberland	about	500,000
In the County of Lincoln	about	2,000,000
In the County of Hancock	about	2,000,000
In the County of Washington on the west of Passamaquoddy	about	2,000,000
Lands reserved for the Indians, exclusive of townships surveyed	about	500,000
		7,200,000

Lands between St. Croix and Passamaquoddy, claimed by the British government, 2,000,000 acres.*

In addition to the several townships and tracts included in the above estimate, there remained for the future disposition of government the Great Isle of Holt, containing 4968¾ acres ; and upwards of one hundred other islands, lying between Penobscot and Passamaquoddy, of various sizes, from 828 acres down to one acre and a quarter ; containing in the whole about 5000 acres, which had all been surveyed.

Besides the lands sold, the following tracts have been granted for the encouragement of literature and other useful and humane purposes, viz.

		Acres.
Two townships to the sufferers of Portland	about	92,160
One ditto to Marblehead Academy		
One ditto to Leicester ditto		
To Hallowell ditto		23,040
To Berwick ditto		23,040
To Washington ditto, at Machias		23,040
To Fryeburg ditto		18,617
To Taunton ditto		23,040
To John Allan and others		33,136
To the town of Boston, for a Hospital		23,040
To Bowdoin College		115,200
To Jonathan Eddy and others	about	11,000
Another township has been granted, one half to Dummer Academy in Byfield		23,040
To Harvard College, for the support of a Botanick Garden		23,040
Amounting in the whole to about		431,000

* The contest about these lands has since been settled.

History.] The first attempt to settle this country was made in 1607, on the west side of Kennebeck, near the sea. No permanent settlement, however, was at this time effected. It does not appear that any further attempts were made until between the years 1620 and 1630.

The Dutch formerly had a settlement at the place which is now called Newcastle, which was under the jurisdiction of the governour of New-York, then called Manhadoes. The town was built on a beautiful neck of land, where rows of old cellars are now to be seen.

In 1635, Sir Ferdinando Gorges obtained a grant from the council of Plymouth, of the tract of country between the rivers Piscataqua and Sagadahock, or Kennebeck; and up Kennebeck so far as to form a square of 120 miles. It is supposed that Sir Ferdinando first instituted government in this province.

In 1639 Gorges obtained from the crown a charter of the soil and jurisdiction, containing as ample powers, perhaps, as the king of England ever granted to any subject.

In the same year he appointed a governour and council, and they administered justice to the settlers until about the year 1647, when, hearing of the death of Gorges, they supposed their authority ceased; and the people on the spot universally combined and agreed to be under civil government, and to elect their officers annually.

Government was administered in this form until 1652, when the inhabitants submitted to the Massachusetts, who, by a new construction of their charter, which was given to Roswell and others, in 1628, claimed the soil and jurisdiction of the province of Maine as far as the middle of Casco Bay. Maine then first took the name of Yorkshire; and county courts were held in the manner they were in Massachusetts, and the towns had liberty to send their deputies to the general court at Boston.

In 1691, by charter from William and Mary, the province of Maine and the large territory eastward, extending to Nova-Scotia, was incorporated with the Massachusetts Bay; since which it has been governed, and courts held as in other parts of Massachusetts.

"The district of Maine, at the time of the charter of William and Mary, in 1692, was held under two appellations; that part which lies between Piscataqua and Kennebeck rivers, was known by the name of the province of Maine; that part which lies between St. Croix and Kennebeck, was called by the ancient French name of Acadia, and both these names were preserved in that charter.

"The province of Maine was not then considered as extending more than 120 miles from the sea; all the country beyond that distance from the ocean was considered as crown lands." [*Sullivan.*]

The separation of this district from Massachusetts, and its erection into an independent state, have been subjects discussed by the inhabitants. Delegates from a number of towns in the counties of York, Cumberland and Lincoln met in convention in Oct. 1785, at Portland, and voted "That a committee of nine be chosen to make out a statement of grievances the three counties labour under; and also an estimate of the expense of a separate government, and compare the same with the expense of the government we are now under." In

Sept. 1786, another convention met, and agreed to petition the General Court to be erected into a separate state. This petition was not presented, and from various causes the whole business fell asleep shortly after.* This subject was afterwards submitted to the inhabitants of Maine, to be decided in town meetings, when it was found that a majority of the freemen were against a separation. The separation was again attempted in 1802, but the friends to the measure appearing by no means to have increased, the legislature did nothing in the business. Such is the rapid settlement and growth of this country, however, that the period when this contemplated separation will take place, is probably not far distant.

The history of Maine has been written and published in one volume,† by the Hon. James Sullivan, Esq. attorney-general of Massachusetts.

MASSACHUSETTS PROPER.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Mil.
Greatest length 190‡ Greatest breadth 90	between	69° 50′, and 73° 10′ W. lon. from London 41° 13′ and 43° 52′ N. lat.	6250

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by Vermont and New-Hampshire; east by the Atlantick Ocean; south by the Atlantick, Rhode-Island and Connecticut; west by New-York.

Divisions.] This part of Massachusetts is divided into twelve counties, which, with the number of houses, inhabitants and chief towns in each, follow.

* See Hist. Col. for 1793, p. 25.

† Printed by Thomas and Andrews, Boston.

‡ The northern line of this state is about 116 miles in length: Its southern, extending from the south-west corner of the state, to Truro, on Cape Cod, is 190 as above stated. Its western line, on the state of New-York, is about fifty miles. In other parts it is wider, and in others much narrower.

The following is a correct statement of the articles taken by the Federal government, and of the amount of the direct tax which has been paid into the United States treasury by the state of Massachusetts.

Counties.	No. Towns in 1790.	No. Towns in 1800.	No. Houses in 1790.	No. Houses in 1800.	No. Inhab. in 1790.	No. Inhab. in 1800.
Suffolk	23	4	6,355	3,286	44,875	28,015
Norfolk		22		3,429		27,216
Essex	22	23	7,644	7,995	57,913	61,196
Middlesex	41	42	5,998	6,585	42,737	46,928
Hampshire	60	62	9,181	9,346	59,681	72,432
Plymouth	15	15	4,240	4,387	29,535	30,073
Bristol	15	15	4,514	4,695	31,709	33,880
Barnstable	10	13	2,343	2,537	17,354	19,293
Duke's	3	3	1,013	463	3,205	3,118
Nantucket	1	1		779	4,620	5,617
Worcester	49	49	8,613	9,239	56,807	61,192
Berkshire	26	30	4,476	4,764	30,291	33,670
Total	265	279	54,377	57,505	378,727	422,630

Chief Towns.	No. Inhab. in 1790.	No. Inhab. in 1800.
Boston	18,038	24,937
Dedham	1,659	1,973
Salem	7,921	9,457
Newburyport	4,837	5,946
Charlestown	1,583	2,751
Concord	1,590	1,679
Northampton	1,628	2,190
Springfield	1,574	2,312
Plymouth	2,995	3,524
Taunton	3,804	3,860
Barnstable	2,610	2,964
Edgarton	1,352	1,226
Sherburne	4,620	5,617
Worcester	2,095	2,411
Stockbridge	1,336	1,261
Great Barrington	1,373	1,754

Number of Dwelling houses above the value of 100 dollars.

No. of Houses.	Dolls.		Dolls.	Class.
38,771⅛ above	100,	and not more than	500	1st.
7,409 ——	500,	do.	1,000	2d.
3,378¾ ——	1,000	do.	3,000	3d.
694 ——	3,000	do.	6,000	4th.
143 ——	6,000	do.	10,000	5th.
33 ——	10,000	do.	15,000	6th.
13 ——	15,000	do.	20,000	7th.
5 ——	20,000	do.	30,000	8th.
1 ——	30,000			9th.

		Dols.	Cts.	M.
50,447⅞	Amount of the tax	83,866	03	2
Lands, lots, buildings, other than dwelling houses, above 100 dollars, wharves, &c. valued at 62,587,332 dols. and 80 cts. which, at 28 cts. and 3 mills, on the 100 dollars, amount to		177,122	15	1
Massachusetts' proportion of the direct tax (including Maine)		260,988	18	3

Climate.] See New-England.

Rivers.] Housatonick river rises from several sources in the western part of this state, and runs southerly through Connecticut, into Long Island Sound, forming delightful intervals at Pittsfield, Stockbridge and Sheffield. Deerfield river falls into Connecticut river, from the west, between Deerfield and Greenfield, which has also large, rich and beautiful intervals at Westfield and West-Springfield. Westfield river empties into the Connecticut at West-Springfield. Connecticut river passes through this state, and intersects the county of Hampshire. In its course it runs over falls, above Deerfield, and between Northampton and Springfield. A company by the name of "The Proprietors of the locks and canals on Connecticut river," was incorporated by the General Court, in 1792, for the purpose of rendering Connecticut river passable for boats, rafts, &c. from Chicapee river* northward to New-Hampshire. Miller's and Chicapee rivers fall into the Connecticut on the east side; the former at Northfield, the latter at Springfield.

In the north-eastern part of the state, is Merrimack, which we have already in part described. It is navigable for vessels of burden about 20 miles from its mouth, where it is obstructed by the first falls, or rapids, called Mitchell's Eddy, between Bradford and Haverhill. Vast quantities of ship timber, ranging timber, plank, deals, clapboards, shingles, staves, and other lumber are brought down in rafts, so constructed as to pass all the falls in the river, except those of Amoskeag and Pautucket, both of which are now rendered passable in boats, by means of locks and canals. In the spring and summer, considerable quantities of salmon, shad, and alewives are caught, which are either used as bait in the cod fishery, or pickled and shipped to the West-Indies. Before the bridges were built there were 12 ferries across this river in the county of Essex. The bar across its

* See article Canals.

mouth is a very great incumbrance to the navigation, and is especially terrible to strangers. There are 16 feet of water upon it at common tides. In 1787 the General Court granted a sum of money for the erection of two sufficient light houses, and made the maintenance of them a publick charge. The houses are of wood, and contrived to be removed at pleasure, so as to be always conformed to the shifting of the bar; and thus the single rule of bringing them in a line, will be the only necessary direction for vessels approaching the harbour, and by this direction they may sail with safety, until they are abreast of the lights, where is a bold shore and good anchoring ground.

Nashua, Concord and Shawsheen rivers, rise in this state and run a north-easterly course into the Merrimack. Parker river rises in Boxford, passes easterly into Rowley, running through Rock and Pantucket ponds; thence it proceeds northerly into Crane pond, which, from Newbury, receives Beaver Brook; thence for two miles it rushes over several falls, meets the tide in Byfield, and after a course of six miles, in which it is joined by Smelt river, it enters Plum Island sound. These six miles in a straight line, or ten or twelve, as the river winds its course through the marshes, it is navigable for coasting vessels, were it not obstructed by three bridges.

Ipswich river rises from several springs in a meadow in the west part of Wilmington, runs easterly through the north part of Reading, through Middleton and Topsfield, and in Ipswich meets the ocean. It is navigable to Ipswich town, where it is crossed by the post road, and has a stone bridge of two arches. It is in general a sluggish stream, and has but few mill seats.

Mistick river falls into Boston harbour east of the peninsula of Charlestown. It is navigable to Medford, three miles.

Charles river is a considerable stream, the principal branch of which rises from a pond bordering on Hopkinton. It passes through Holliston and Bellingham, and divides Medway from Medfield, Wrentham and Franklin, and thence into Dedham, where, by a curious bend, it forms a peninsula of 900 acres of land. And, what is very singular, a stream called Mother Brook, runs out of this river, in this town, and falls into Neponset river, which answers for a canal uniting the two rivers, and affords a number of excellent mill seats. From Dedham the course of the river is northerly, dividing Newton from Needham, Weston and Waltham, passing over romantick falls; it then bends to the north-east and east, through Watertown and Cambridge, and passes into Boston harbour, between Charlestown and Boston. It is navigable for boats to Watertown, 7 miles.

Neponset river originates chiefly from Muddy and Punkapog ponds, in Stoughton, and Mashapog Pond in Sharon, and after passing over falls sufficient to carry mills, unites with other small streams, and forms a very constant supply of water for the many mills situated on the river below, until it meets the tide in Milton, from whence it is navigable for vessels of 150 tons burthen to the bay, distant about 4 miles. Neponset river, from Milton to the bay, forms a regular and beautiful serpentine, interspersed with hillocks of wood so regularly

placed, that from Milton hill it affords one of the finest prospects in the world. Passing Fore and Back rivers in Weymouth, you come to North river which rises in Indian Head Pond in Pembroke, and, running in a serpentine course between Scituate and Marshfield, passes to sea. This river, for its size, is remarkable for its great depth of water, it being in some places not more than 40 or 50 feet wide, and yet vessels of 300 tons are built at Pembroke, 18 miles (as the river runs) from its mouth. This river is navigable for boats to the first fall, 5 miles from its source in Indian Head Pond. Thence to the nearest waters which run into Taunton river, is only three miles. A canal to connect the waters of these two rivers, which communicate with Narraganset and Massachusetts bays, would be of great utility, as it would save a long and dangerous navigation round Cape Cod.

Mankin, Wiwiwantick, Accushnet, Aponegenset, and Pascamanset are small rivers running from N. and N. W. into Buzzard's Bay.

Taunton river is made up of several streams which unite in or near the town of Bridgwater. Its course is from N. E. to S. W. till it falls into Narraganset Bay at Tiverton, opposite the north end of Rhode-Island. It receives a considerable tributary stream at Taunton, from the north-west. The head waters of Pautucket and Providence rivers in Rhode-Island, and of Quinnabaug and Shetucket rivers, in Connecticut, are in this state.

Capes.] The only capes of considerable note, on the coast of this state, are Cape Ann on the north side of Massachusetts Bay, and Cape Cod on the south. Besides these there is Cape Malabar, or Sandy Point, extending 10 miles south from Chatham towards Nantucket—Cape Poge, the north point of Chabaquiddick; and Gay Head, the west point of Martha's Vineyard.

Cape Cod, so called probably from the multitudes of cod-fish which are found on its coast, is the south-easterly part of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. In shape it resembles a man's arm when bended, with the hand turned inward towards the body. The cape comprehends the county of Barnstable, though the name of Cape Cod ought to be confined to the northern point. It is between 60 and 70 miles in length, containing about 400 square miles.

Province town is the hook of the Cape, and is generally narrow, the widest place not being more than three miles. The harbour, which is capacious, opens to the southward, and has depth of water for any ships. It is safe, except when strong winds blow from the S. E. when vessels sometimes drag their anchors, the bottom being sandy. *It was the first port entered by our forefathers, when they came to settle this country in* 1620. This place has been in a state of thriving and decaying many times. It is now rising. It contains upwards of 100 families, whose whole dependence is upon the sea for their support. They employ between twenty and thirty sail of vessels great and small, in the cod fishery. They have been remarkably successful of late. Ten of their vessels, employed in 1790 upon the Grand Bank, took 11,000 quintals of cod-fish. They had not (in 1791) lost a vessel, or a man, in the business since the war.

The houses stand upon the inner side of the hook of the cape fronting south-east, and looking into the harbour. They are small,

one story high, and stand in one range upon the beach; the flakes on which they dry their fish are round them. The vessels run in upon the shore, which is a soft sand, throw their fish over, where they are washed from the salt, and carried up to the flakes on hand-barrows.

They raise nothing from their lands, but are wholly dependent upon Boston market and other places, for every kind of vegetable production.

There were, in 1791, but two horses and two yoke of oxen kept in the town. They had about fifty cows, which fed in the spring upon beach grass, which grows here and there upon the shore; and in summer in the sunken ponds, and marshy places, that are found between the sand hills. Here the cows are seen wading, and even swimming, plunging their heads into the water up to their horns, picking a scanty subsistence from the roots and herbs produced in the water. They are fed in the winter on sedge, cut upon the flats.

Except a border of loose sand, which runs round the whole place, it is very broken and hilly. These hills are white sand, and their produce is whortleberry bushes, and small pitch-pine shrubs. The pines next the village have been much cut off for fire-wood. Cutting away the wood exposes the hills to be torn away by the violence of the winds, and in some instances persons have been obliged to remove their houses to prevent being covered up. These hills and sand heaps are constantly shifting; and when torn away in one place, are piled up on another. It is not unfrequent, to have their fish flakes covered up with banks of sand like snow. Immediately in stepping from any house, the foot sinks in sand to the depth of the shoe. The most southerly point of this place, called Wood End, is two miles south-west from the village. What is called Race Point, known to all seamen, is the north-westerly extremity of the Cape, and lies north-west from the village, distant three miles.

A traveller, in passing from the village over to Race Point, about midway, travels some distance through a pine wood, the trees about twenty feet in height; at length he finds the path obstructed with a mound of sand, almost perpendicular, rising among the trees to their tops. His horse with difficulty mounts this precipice, his feet sinking almost to the knees in the sand. This volume of sand is gradually rolling into the woods with the winds, and as it covers the trees to the tops, they die. As soon as a traveller mounts this bank, a curious spectacle presents to view, a desert of white sand, five miles in length, parallel with the sea, and one mile and a half in breadth. The tops of the trees appear above the sand, but they are all dead. Where they have been lately covered, the bark and twigs are still remaining; from others they are fallen off; some have been so long whipped and worn out with the sand and winds, that there is nothing remaining but the hearts and knots of the trees. But over the greater part of this desert the trees have long since disappeared.

After crossing this wilderness, where the horse sinks to his fetlocks at every step, you arrive at Race Point. Here are a number of huts, erected by the persons who come over from the village to fish in boats. Here they keep their fishing apparatus, and lodge. At the

distance of fifteen rods from the point, the water is thirty fathoms in depth, and cod, haddock and other kinds of fish, are taken in plenty whenever the weather will permit. They take many kinds of fish with seins, such as pollock, mackarel and herring: The two latter are often taken in their harbour in great abundance. At this place, Race Point, are seen, at some times, hundreds of sharks lying on the shore, which have been caught by the boats when fishing for cod. They weigh from three to six hundred weight. Their livers, which produce oil, are the only parts of them of which any use is made. They are taken by a large hook, baited with a cod-fish, and fastened to an iron chain with a swivel, to prevent them from biting or twisting it off. When the shark has seized the hook, they drag him up to the stern of the boat, and being too large to take on board the boats there made use of, they row ashore with him, drag him up on the beach, rip him open, take out his liver, and the carcass is left to perish. Fishing, either at sea in vessels, or round the shore in boats, is the whole employment of all the inhabitants. There is no employment but this, to which they can turn their attention. And the boys, as soon as they have strength to pull a cod-fish, are put on board a boat or vessel.

As this harbour is of so much consequence, often affording a shelter from storms to vessels both inward and outward bound, it is of importance that there should always be a settlement here. The Province formerly afforded them some encouragement, besides exempting them from taxation; but there is now hardly a town in the state more thriving and able to help themselves. Cape Cod in general is a thin, barren soil, by far the most so of any part of New-England. But the sea air impregnates all vegetables with a quality which renders them far more nutritive to cattle, than the same quantity far inland; it being an undoubted fact, that cattle will do well in such pastures, as, far up in the country, would starve them at once. Their salt hay, which is almost their only forage, affords a manure which is also far superior to that which is made at a distance from the sea. This greatly assists their crops of corn and rye, beyond what the land promises in its appearance. The lands of Cape Cod could never support its inhabitants, which are now upwards of 19,000. A great part of the men and boys are constantly employed at sea. In this business they support themselves and families; and it is observed, that the young people form family connections earlier in life, than in any other part of the country; which, perhaps, is one evidence, that the means of subsistence are easily obtainable. Cape Cod is a nursery for seamen, and in that view, one of the most important places in the state, or in America. If the cultivation of the sea is a blessing to any nation, we may consider the inhabitants of the Cape as the most valuable among our countrymen.

The Cape abounds with clear fresh ponds, generally stocked with fish. There is a little sunken land. The wood on the Cape is generally pitch pine. There are few or no stones below Harwich. The cellars are walled with brick, in a circular form, to prevent the loose sand from caving in. The wells are secured in the same manner, and they are obliged to keep them covered, to prevent the sand from blow-

ing in, and spoiling the water. Formerly, the inhabitants took many whales round the Cape, chiefly in Massachusetts Bay; but that business is almost at an end. The manner of taking black fish is somewhat singular. They are fish of the whale kind, of about five tons weight, and produce oil, in the same manner as a whale. When a shoal of them is discovered, which sometimes consists of several hundreds, the inhabitants put off in boats, get without them, and drive them, like so many cattle, on to the shore and flats, where they are left by the tide and fall an easy prey. The shore of the Cape is in many places covered with the huge bones of these fish and of whales, which remain unconsumed for many years. Many persons conjecture, that the Cape is gradually wearing away, and that it will finally fall a sacrifice to the ravages of the winds and the seas, and many circumstances favour such an opinion. At Provincetown harbour, stumps of trees are seen which the sea now covers in common tides. When the English first settled upon the Cape, there was an island off Chatham, at three leagues distance, called *Webb's Island*, containing twenty acres, covered with red cedar or savin. The inhabitants of Nantucket used to carry wood from it. This island has been wholly worn away for almost a century. A large rock, that was upon the island, and which settled as the earth washed away, now marks the place; it rises as much above the bottom of the sea, as it used to rise above the surface of the ground. The water is six fathoms deep on this spot. And in many places on the Cape, the sea appears to be encroaching on the land.

The Cape is so exposed to winds in every direction, that fruit trees do not thrive. There are few orchards, of any consequence, below Barnstable. There is not a cider-mill in the country. In many places their forest trees have more the appearance of a prim hedge, than of timber.

The Cape is an healthy situation, except for those constitutions which are too delicate for the piercing winds that come from the sea. The inhabitants in general live as long as in other parts of the northern states.

The winds in every direction come from the sea; and invalids, by visiting the Cape, sometimes experience the same benefit as from going to sea.*

Bays.] The principal bays on the coast of Massachusetts are, Ipswich, Boston, Plymouth, Cape Cod or Barnstable and Buzzard's Bays. There are other bays of less note.

Islands.] Many Islands are scattered along the coast. Plum Island is about nine miles in length, extending from Merrimack river on the north, to the entrance of Ipswich river on the south, and is separated from the main land by a narrow sound, called Plum Island river, fordable in several places at low water. It consists principally of sand, blown into curious heaps, 10, 15 and 25 feet high, and crowned with bushes bearing the beach plum. There is, however, a valuable property of salt marsh, and at the south end of the island

* See Massachusetts Magazine for March, 1791, whence the foregoing account of Cape Cod is principally taken.

are two or three good farms. On the north end are the light-houses before mentioned. On the sea shore of this island, and on Salisbury beach, the Humane Society of Newburyport have erected several small houses, furnished with fuel and other conveniences for the relief of mariners who may be shipwrecked on this coast. This island, in the season when the plums are ripe, is the resort of the neighbouring inhabitants, and a scene of lively amusement.

Nantucket Island is 15 miles in length, and 11 in breadth, about 70° W. lon. from London, and 41° 20′ N. lat. 8 leagues southward of Cape Cod. The climate of this island is mild compared with that of the adjacent continent. The soil is light and sandy, except some part, where the town stands, and some tracts at the east end of the island, which are of a loamy, rich soil. It is well watered with ponds and springs. A long sandy point projects from the east end of the island to the northward and westward, on which stands the light-house, erected in 1784.* Between this point and the northern shore of the island is a bay which affords a fine road for ships, except with the wind at N. W. when there is a heavy swell. The harbour is a bason within this bay, obstructed by a sand bar, on which are 7½ feet water at low tide; within the bar are 12 or 14 feet water.

The neighbouring sea produces cod, hallibut, sturgeon, shad, herring, bass, eels, &c. On the land, are horses, cattle, sheep and hogs.

In 1790 there were 4,619 inhabitants on this island. In 1800, 5,617. The men are principally robust, enterprising seamen and mechanicks. The seamen are said to be the most expert whalemen in the world. The women are handsome, and make good wives and good mothers. The inhabitants have been remarkable for living together like one great and harmonious family.

"The land is held in common by the inhabitants, i. e. the island is supposed to be divided into 27 shares; (some few private farms excepted) each share is entitled to a certain portion of land, which the owner may take up in any part of the common land, and convert it to what use he thinks proper. Each share is subdivided into lesser shares, called *Cow's Commons*, which give the proprietor a privilege to turn out as many cows or other cattle as he owns of such parts in common or other stock, in the proportion of one horse or 16 sheep to two cow's commons; which stock feeds on any part of the land that is not converted into a field." All the cows, amounting to about 500, feed together in one herd: All the sheep in one pasture. Each proprietor marks his own. On the days of shearing, which are commonly *two*, on about the 20th of June, and which are high festive days among the inhabitants, all the sheep are driven into an inclosure, and each proprietor selects and shears his own sheep.

The proprietors in common, plant about 675 acres of corn a year, averaging about 12 bushels an acre, making an aggregate of 8,100 bushels, besides about 4000 bushels raised on the private farms. Every other year the land is sowed partly with rye, and partly with

* The practicability and expediency of forming an artificial island on *Nantucket Shoals*, on which to erect some landmark for seamen, have been suggested. A Note in the Massachusetts Register for 1802, p. 180, on this subject is worthy the attention of the wealthy and humane.

oats, yielding yearly about 500 bushels of the former, and 8000 of the latter; besides what is raised on the private farms.

The island is continually lessening by the washing of the sea. Shells of the same kind as are now found on the surface, have been dug from wells 40 or 50 feet below the surface, which indicate that at some former period the earth has encroached upon the sea.

This island was granted to Thomas Mayhew in 1641, by the agent of William, Earl of Stirling. In 1659, Mayhew conveyed nine tenths of it to nine proprietors, who the same year began the settlement of the island. [*Folger and Macy's Account of Nantucket.*]

The island of itself constitutes one county, which bears the name of the island. *Sherburne*, the only town, contains the bulk of the inhabitants.

A bank of discount and deposite was instituted in Nantucket in 1794.

The inhabitants formerly carried on the most considerable whale fishery on the coast, but the war almost ruined this business. They have since, however, revived it again, and pursue the whales even into the great Pacifick Ocean. There is not a single tree on the island of natural growth; they have a place called the woods, but it has been destitute of trees for these 60 years past. The island was formerly well wooded. The people, especially the females, are fondly attached to the island, and few wish to migrate to a more desirable situation.

The inhabitants of this island are principally Friends or Quakers; there is one society of Congregationalists. Forty years ago there were three congregations of Indians, each of which had a house for worship, and a teacher. Their last Indian pastor died about the year 1775, and was a worthy, respectable character.

Martha's Vineyard, which lies a little to the westward of Nantucket, lat. 41° 23′, is about 21 miles in length, including Chabaquiddick, and six in breadth. It contains three societies of Congregationalists, at Edgarton, Tisbury and Chilmark; two of Baptists, without ministers, and three congregations of Indians, one of which is supplied by an ordained Indian minister, and to the others the Rev. Mr. Mayhew preaches in rotation, and superintends the whole. Martha's Vineyard, Chabaquiddick, Noman's Island, and the Elizabeth Islands, which contain about 16,500 acres of valuable land, constitute Duke's County, containing 3118 inhabitants, of which, (July 1801) 320 were Indians and mulattoes, subsisting by agriculture and fishing. The Indians have decreased nearly one quarter in 5 or 6 years.

Edgarton, which includes the fertile island of Chabaquiddick, three miles long, and one and a half broad, is the shire town. This little island joins to the harbour and renders it very secure. Gay Head, the westernmost part of the island, containing about 2400 acres, is very good tillage land, and is wholly occupied by Indians, but not well cultivated. One third of this tract is the property of the English society for propagating the gospel in New-England. A shrub oak plain covers about two thirds of the island. The principal productions of the island are corn, rye and oats. They raise sheep and cattle in considerable numbers. There are four mill-streams in Tisbury. The inhabitants of this county send three representatives.

and, in conjunction with Nantucket, one senator, to the General Court.

The other islands of consideration are in that part of Massachusetts Bay called the *Harbour*, which is agreeably diversified by about 40 of various sizes. Seven of them are within the jurisdiction of the town of Boston, and taxed with it. Castle Island is about three miles from Boston, and contains about 18 acres of land. The buildings, before the new works commenced, were the governour's house, a magazine, gaol, barracks, and workshops. This island has been ceded by Massachusetts to the government of the United States, and has been named FORT INDEPENDENCE. Very strong and expensive fortifications have been begun, and considerably advanced under a skilful engineer, by direction of the general government, which, when finished, will effectually defend the harbour against maritime enemies.

Light Houses.] Within this state are the following light houses: On Plum Island, near Newbury, are two, which we have already mentioned. On Thatcher's Island, off Cape Ann, two lights of equal height. Another stands on a rock on the north side of the entrance of Boston harbour, with one single light. On the north point of Plymouth harbour are two lights. On a point at the entrance of the harbour on the island of Nantucket is one with a single light. This light may be seen as far as Nantucket shoals extend. The island being low, the light appears over it. Another is to be erected on Martha's Vineyard.

Face of the Country.] See New-England. By an admeasurement made by the barometer at Princeton, in this state, about 45 miles N. W. from Boston, and at Cambridge, 1777, it appears that Princeton is 1332 feet higher than the level of the sea. The top of Wachuset Mountain in Princeton was found to be 2989 feet above the level of the sea. A hill of this height, in a clear horizon, may be seen 67 miles. Mount Tom, near Northampton, is 1237 feet above the level of Connecticut river, at its base; and Mount Holyoke, in Hadley, is nearly as high.

Soil and Productions.] In Massachusetts are to be found all the varieties of soil, from very good to very bad, capable of yielding all the different productions common to the climate, such as Indian corn, rye, wheat, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hops, potatoes, field beans and peas; apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, grapes, &c. That part of the state which is distinguished by the name of the *Old* or *Plymouth Colony*, including the counties of Barnstable, Duke's, Nantucket, Bristol and Plymouth, in point of soil, is the poorest part of the state, being generally sandy and light, interspersed, however, with many excellent tracts of land. The northern, middle, and western parts of the state, have, generally speaking, a strong, good soil, adapted to grazing and grain; very similar to the soil of New-Hampshire and Vermont on one side, and to that of Rhode-Island and Connecticut on the other. It has been observed that the effects of the east winds extend farther inland than formerly, and injure the tender fruits, particularly the peach, and even the more hardy apple. In the eastern part of the state the wheat is injured by the great number of barberry bushes which spread along the coast of Massachusetts, and also by the raw

east winds. In the interior counties the peach-trees are thought to suffer rather from the change of soil and the peach worm, than from the east winds. While they will not grow in the river towns, they flourish in the towns immediately back. The average produce of the good lands, well cultivated, has been estimated as follows; 30 bushels of corn on an acre, 30 of barley, 20 of wheat, 15 of rye, 200 of potatoes. The staple commodities of this state are fish, beef, lumber, &c. The best cultivated and most productive part of the state is in the vicinity of Boston. Cambridge, Newton, Roxbury, Dorchester, Dedham, are literally gardens, from which the inhabitants of the capital are principally supplied with the finest fruits, roots and vegetables.

Commerce.] This state carries on an extensive and lucrative commerce. Her ships visit almost all parts of the world. Her principal exports, of her own productions, consist of pot and pearl-ashes, flax-seed, whale-oil, spermaceti, whale-bone, spermaceti candles, fish dried and pickled, beef, pork, cheese, butter, and various other kinds of provisions, live stock, American rum, cotton and wool cards, men's and women's shoes, snuff and manufactured tobacco, household furniture, various kinds of lumber, as boards, plank, oars and rafters, oak and pine timber, shingles, staves and heading, ship-timber, &c. Of these articles, and others, the produce or manufacture of the states, together with articles of foreign growth, imported for exportation to other countries, were exported in the year ending September 30, 1791, to the amount of 2,445,975 dollars, 53 cents. Besides shoes, cards, hats, saddlery and various other manufactures, and several articles the produce of the country to a great amount, exported to the southern and other states, not included in this amount.

In the year ending September 30, 1793, the exports from this state (with the same exceptions and qualifications as above) amounted to 3,676,412 dollars; in 1799, to 11,421,591 dollars; and in 1804 to 16,894,379.

This state owns more than three times as many tons of shipping as any other of the states, and more than one third part of the whole that belongs to the United States. Upwards of 29,000 tons are employed in carrying on the fisheries; 46,000 in the coasting business, and 96,564 in trading with almost all parts of the world.

In 1797, this state owned 284,070 tons of shipping, of which 67,399 tons belonged to Maine.

The following is a correct statement of the number of vessels entered and cleared at the ports of Boston and Charlestown, during the year 1801.*

	Entered.	Cleared.
Ships	173	147
Barques,	3	4
Snows,	17	13
Brigs,	219	192
Schooners,	473	444
Ketch,	1	1
Sloops,	52	50
Total,	938	851

* It should be remarked that there are 22 districts in this state, of which Boston and Charlestown compose one.

Pot and pearl-ash, staves, flax-seed, bees-wax, &c. are carried chiefly to Great-Britain, in remittance for their manufactures; masts and provisions to the East-Indies; fish, oil, beef, pork, lumber, candles, &c. are carried to the West-Indies, for their produce, and the two first articles, fish and oil, to France, Spain and Portugal; roots, vegetables, fruits and small meats, to Nova-Scotia and New-Brunswick; hats, saddlery, cabinet work, men's and women's shoes, nails, tow-cloth, barley, hops, butter, cheese, &c. to the southern states. The *Negro* trade was prohibited by law in 1788, and there is not a single *slave* belonging to the Commonwealth.

Manufactures.] There is a duck manufactory at Boston, at which between 2000 and 3000 bolts, of 40 yards each, (worth about thirteen dollars per bolt) said to be the best duck ever seen in America, have been made in one year. Manufactories of this kind have been established in Salem, Haverhill and Springfield. Manufactories of cotton goods have been attempted at Beverly, Worcester and Boston, and much credit is due to the patriotick gentlemen who began them; although by their persevering exertions, they have not been able to surmount the various obstacles in the way of success. A woollen manufactory, on an extensive scale, has been established at Byfield parish in Newbury. At Taunton, Bridgwater, Plymouth, Amesbury, Middleborough, and some other places, nails have been made in such quantities as to prevent, in a great measure, the importation of them from Great-Britain. A machine for cutting nails has been invented by Mr. Jacob Perkins of Newburyport, a gentleman of great ingenuity in the science of mechanicks, which (if necessary) will turn out two hundred thousand nails in a day. The engines which are worked by water, at Amesbury, may be increased to any number that may be necessary. The nails, it is asserted by those who have tried them, have a decided superiority over those of English manufacture, and are sold 20 per cent. cheaper. The proprietors say they can make a sufficient number to supply the continent. Inventions of such extensive utility merit the patronage and encouragement of the publick.

In this state there are upwards of 20 paper-mills, six on Neponset river, seven on Charles river, one at Andover, on Shawsheen river, one at Sutton, one at Worcester, another at Springfield; others have been lately erected in different parts of the state. Most of these mills have two vats each, and when in action, employ 10 men, and as many girls and boys, and produce at the rate of 70,000 reams of writing, printing and wrapping paper, annually. It was estimated, in 1792, that 20,000*l.* worth of paper was yearly made by these mills. The quantity has since annually and rapidly increased.

In 1793 the principal card manufactories in Boston, belonging to Messrs. G. Richards, W. Whittemore, and M. Richards, made yearly about 12,000 dozen of cotton and wool cards, which consumed nearly 200 casks of wire, averaged at 130 dollars per cask, and about 35,000 tanned calf, sheep and lamb skins at 37 cents each. The sticking of these cards employed not less than two thousand people, chiefly children, and above 60 men were fully occupied in manufacturing card-boards, card-tacks, and finishing the cards. Be-

sides the above, there were at that period three other smaller manufactories in Boston; and it was estimated that between 2000 and 3000 dozen cards were made at the other manufactories in different parts of the state. The principal card manufactory is now at Cambridge, (Menotomy parish) belonging to Mr. Whittemore, and the works are a great curiosity. At the close of the year 1801, it was estimated that on an average, 50 dozen were made in a day, exclusive of those made by machinery.

There are two or three manufactories, in Boston and it's vicinity, for making playing-cards, at one of which large quantities are made.

Lynn, eight miles to the north-eastward of Boston, in the county of Essex, is the seat of the shoe manufacture; though a vast many are made in Boston, Quincy, Reading, Stoneham, Byfield, Newbury and other places. It is not easy to fix the number of shoes annually made by the industrious inhabitants of Lynn; but by a calculation made in February, 1795, it appeared that 200 master-workmen, and 600 journeymen and apprentices are constantly employed in this business, who make annually about 300,000 pair of shoes, which are exported chiefly by the manufacturers to the southern markets. One man, Mr. B. Johnson, from his own work-shop, in the course of seven months, shipped 20,600 pair of shoes, valued at £4,979 6s. exclusive of large numbers sold in the vicinity.

Silk and thread lace of an elegant texture, are manufactured by women and children, in large quantities, in the town of Ipswich, in Essex county, and sold for use and exportation, in Boston and other mercantile towns. This manufacture, if properly regulated and encouraged, might be productive of great and extensive advantages. In the year 1790, no less than 41,979 yards were made in this town; and the quantity, it is supposed, has since been considerably increased.

A wire manufactory has lately been erected, at a considerable expense, in Dedham, in Norfolk county, for the purpose of drawing wire for the use of the fish-hook and card manufactories in Boston. The essays which have already been made, promise success.

There are several snuff, oil, chocolate and powder mills in different parts of the state, and a number of iron-works and slitting-mills, besides other mills, in common use, in great abundance, for sawing lumber, grinding grain, and fulling cloth.

There were, in 1792, 62 distilleries in this state, employed in distilling from foreign materials. In these distilleries are 158 stills, which together contain 102,173 gallons. Besides these there were 12 country stills, employed in distilling domestick materials; but these were small. One million nine hundred thousand gallons have been distilled in one year, which, at a duty of eleven cents a gallon, yields a revenue to the government of 209,000 dollars. In the year ending June 30, 1796, 1,479,509 gallons were distilled in this state from foreign and 11,490 from domestick materials, yielding a revenue of 148,769 dollars, 36 cents.

A brick pyramidical glass-house was erected in Boston, by a company of gentlemen, in 1789. This has since been pulled down and another erected on a new plan. For want of workmen skilled in the

business, their works were not put in operation effectually till November, 1792; and have since been interrupted by the transformation of the building. The glass here manufactured is much superior to any ever imported, and finds a ready sale, being as cheap, according to its quality. There is manufactured about 900 sheets in a week, each sheet worth about 1 dollar 75 cents, amounting per annum to about 76,000 dollars. As there is an abundance of the materials for this manufacture at command, there can be little doubt of its being carried to such an extent in the course of a few years, as to preclude foreign importations, which will make a vast saving to our country. Every friend to his country must wish that the patriotick company, which have established this manufacture, might meet with such success as to have their expenses reimbursed, which have been very great.

Bridges.] The bridges that merit notice in this state are the following, viz. Charles river bridge, built in 1786-87, 1503 feet long, and connecting Boston and Charlestown. It is built on 75 piers, with a convenient draw in the middle, for the passage of vessels. Each pier is composed of seven sticks of oak timber, united by a cap piece, strong braces and girts, and afterwards driven into the bed of the river, and firmly secured by a single pile on each side driven obliquely to a solid bottom. The piers are connected to each other by large string-pieces, which are covered with four inch plank. The bridge is 43 feet in width, and on each side is accommodated with a passage six feet wide, railed in for the safety of people on foot. The bridge has a gradual rise from each end, so as to be two feet higher in the middle than at the extremities. Forty elegant lamps are erected, at a suitable distance from each other, to illuminate it when necessary. There are four strong stone wharves, connected with three piers each, sunk in various parts of the river. The machinery of the draw is simple, and requires but two men to raise it. At the highest tides the water rises 12 or 14 feet; the floor of the bridge is then about four feet above the water. The depth of the water in the channel, at low tide, is 27 feet. This bridge was completed in 13 months; and while it exhibits the greatest effect of private enterprise, of this kind, in the United States, it being the first bridge of considerable magnitude that has been erected, presents a most pleasing proof, how certainly great objects may be attained by spirited exertions.

The success which attended this experiment led others to engage in similar works of enterprise. Malden bridge, across Mystick river, connecting Charlestown with Malden, was begun in April, 1787, and was opened for passengers the September following. This bridge, including the abutments, is 2420 feet long, and 32 feet wide; it has a draw 30 feet wide. The deepest water at full tide is 23 feet. The expense of this bridge was estimated at £5,300.

In 1804, another bridge was erected over this river at its mouth, connecting Charlestown with Chelsea, over which travellers on the Salem turnpike pass.

Essex bridge, upwards of 1500 feet in length, with a well-contrived draw, was erected in 1789, and connects Salem with Beverly. The expense of this bridge is said not to have exceeded one third part of that of Charles river bridge, yet it is esteemed quite equal in strength, and is thought by travellers to be superior in point of beauty.

In Rowley, on the post-road between Boston and Newburyport, is a bridge across Parker's river, 870 feet long, and 26 feet wide, consisting of nine solid piers and eight wooden arches. This bridge was built in the year 1758.

A bridge over Merrimack river in the county of Essex, about two miles above Newburyport, was planned and constructed by Mr. Timothy Palmer of Newburyport, 1792. At the place where the bridge is erected, Deer-Island divides the river into two branches. An arch of 160 feet diameter, and 40 feet above the level of high water, connects this island with the main on one side. The channel on the other side is wider, but the centre arch is but 113 feet diameter. Great ingenuity is discovered in the construction of this bridge, and it is one among the vast number of stupendous and useful works, which owe their origin to that confidence between man and man, which has been created or restored by the measures of the general government.

An elegant bridge, connecting Haverhill with Bradford, 650 feet in length, and 34 feet wide, was completed in the fall of 1794. It has three arches of 180 feet each, supported by three handsome stone piers, 40 feet square. It has as many defensive piers or sterlings, extending 50 feet above the bridge, and a draw of 30 feet over the channel of the river.

Another ingeniously constructed bridge has been built over this river at Pautucket Falls, between Chelmsford and Dracut, in the county of Middlesex.

Another bridge over this river called the *Merrimack bridge*, between Newbury and Haverhill bridges, of ingenious and elegant workmanship, was completed in November, 1795. It is the longest of any on Merrimack river by several hundred feet. It consists of four long arches, and a draw; and stands upon five piers, and two abutments, one on each shore, besides a considerable length built upon piles.

A bridge, connecting Boston with Cambridge, of very handsome workmanship, was erected in the years 1792 and 1793. The wood part of it is 3500 feet in length; the causeway on the Cambridge side, is 3640 feet, making together nearly a mile and a third. The bridge is supported by piers, and has a draw for the passage of vessels, and is, by much, the longest, and probably the most expensive bridge in the United States. This and all the other bridges we have mentioned are supported by a toll, and yield, with some exceptions, to the proprietors a very handsome interest for their money.

The legislature, in February, 1792, were petitioned by a company, for liberty to build a bridge over Connecticut river, at Montague; which was granted, but the work has not yet been completed.

Locks and Canals.] Locks and Canals in various parts of the state have been contemplated, particularly between Barnstable Bay and Buzzard's Bay, which, if it could be accomplished, "would be more advantageous to Massachusetts and the continent than any other."* Another which was to open a communication between Boston and some part of Connecticut river; for which purpose, General Knox

* President Dwight.

and others were incorporated by the General Court, in 1792, by the name of "The Proprietors of the Massachusetts Canal." But the idea of opening canals in these places, seems, for the present at least, to be laid aside. Other plans of this kind, since adopted, and more practicable, have been carried, or are now carrying into effect.

The following account of the locks and canals on Connecticut river in this state, was communicated to the author by an ingenious, respectable, and obliging correspondent, who visited them in the autumn of 1801.

"In February, 1792, a law was passed by the legislature of Massachusetts, incorporating the Hon. John Worthington, Esq. and others, for the purpose of rendering Connecticut river passable for boats and rafts from the mouth of Chickapee river, northward, throughout the Commonwealth. But at the request of the proprietors, a subsequent law was passed in 1794, for the purpose of dividing the property of the company into two separate corporations; the one called the Upper Canals, was to improve the navigation of the river between the mouth of Deerfield river and the head of Miller's falls: The other, called the Lower Canals, was to improve the navigation of the river between the head of the falls at South-Hadley, and the mouth of Chickapee river.

DESCRIPTION OF THE UPPER CANALS.

These works are intended to overcome the falls and rapids which obstruct the navigation at Miller's river, commonly called Miller's falls, and the rapids at Montague, called the Great Bar, or the Montague falls. About two or three hundred rods below the mouth of Miller's river, a dam laid up of solid timber, and planked over, of about eight feet high, and 330 feet long, is built across Connecticut river; this raises the water sufficiently in the river, to overcome and deaden the rapids at, and above, the mouth of Miller's river for a mile and upward. On the east side of the river, between the bank and a solid rock on which the dam is butted, is a lock of one hundred feet in length, and twenty feet wide, to let through the boats and rafts, and overcome the eight feet fall occasioned by the dam. Four miles below is another dam of a stupendous structure! It is one thousand feet in length, and twenty-eight feet high, from the top, to the surface of the water; it is built like that at Miller's river, of solid timber, and supported by heavy cross timbers, and is situated at the place formerly called the Great Bar, where two large rocks in the channel of the river serve, the one to support it, and the other to connect the two parts of it together. This dam answers two purposes. 1. It sets up the water to the upper dam at Miller's river, by which means it overcomes and deadens the rapids between Miller's falls and the Great Bar, and enables the boats to proceed that distance without interruption. 2. It supplies with water the canal which serves to overcome the rapids at Montague. This canal is nearly three miles in length, and is cut across a level piece of land, formed by the river, which here makes a large bend; the water is taken out of the river at the dam, and empties into it again a few rods below

the mouth of Deerfield river. At the head of the canal, and immediately at the dam between the eastern bank of the river, and a solid rock to which the dam is joined, is the guard lock, supported on the river side by a stupendous wall of stone, and on the other side by a rocky shore; this wall is forty feet high, and twenty-six feet broad at its base. Here the boats and rafts are let in, and proceed through the canal, and through eight locks, three of which are nearly half way down, and are called the Middle Locks, and five at the bottom of the canal, where the boats take the river again. The canal is twenty feet wide, and two and a half feet deep; at different intervals are waste-gates to let out the surplus of water into the river. The locks are also twenty feet wide, and seventy-five feet long, and draw three feet of water; they are supported on each side by stone walls well cemented, and eight feet thick, lined inside with pine planks, which are spiked to timbers fastened in the walls. The whole of the fall from the guard lock at the dam, to where the boats take the river again, is sixty-six feet. The construction of these works saves the carriage of six miles. The toll as fixed by law is,

	Cts. mls.
For one ton of merchandize,	91 7
— one thousand feet of boards,	41 7
— other lumber equal to 1000 feet of boards,	41 7
— empty boats for every ton which they are able to carry,	16 6

The first toll was received on the 30th of October, 1800, and the locks are now in full operation.

The new established turnpike road, leading from Williamstown in Berkshire, to Boston, crosses the lower end of the canal, and is connected by a bridge with stone piers, which is now building across Connecticut river, a few rods above the mouth of Deerfield river.

DESCRIPTION OF THE LOWER CANALS.

These works are intended to overcome the falls and rapids which obstruct the navigation, between the mouth of Stony Brook, and the mouth of Chickapee river. At the head of the falls, at South-Hadley, a dam of solid timber is built obliquely up the river, on the east side, for the distance of about one hundred rods; from thence it strikes across to the west bank of the river, which is a distance of about sixty rods. The oblique part of the dam is from 14 to 12 feet high, lessening in height gradually as it extends up the river. At the bottom of this dam is the guard lock which leads into the canal. The canal is two miles in length, and dug chiefly along the bank, at a small distance from the river. The first mile is dug through low land diked up on the river side, leaving a narrow strip of pasture between the canal and the river, and forming a number of natural basons in the former, which variegate the prospect, and render this part of the canal extremely pleasant; the remainder of the distance is dug through solid rocks, in some places to the depth of twenty and twenty-five

feet. The canal in the most narrow places is twenty feet wide; but generally it is much wider, and two and a half feet deep. At the bottom of this canal are a pair of gates which lead into a large bason, at the end of which is another pair of gates, letting in at pleasure the water into another reservoir leading directly to the great car or machine, which conducts the boats and rafts up and down the inclined plane. This inclined plane is a substitute for a chain of locks, which would be requisite to ascend and descend the fifty-five feet which the canal is here elevated above the surface of the river. At the foot of the inclined plane is another canal of about half a mile in length, where the boats are discharged from the car, and which empties into the river again. Here is one lock which is used occasionally to keep a constant supply of water in the canal, when the water in the river is very low. The inclined plane is built of solid stone, thirty feet wide, and two hundred and seventy-five feet long from the level of the Upper Canal, to the bottom of the Lower Canal, where the car sinks to take on, and discharge the boats. The car is built somewhat in the form of a waggon, with three pair of wheels. It is constructed in such a manner, that when ascending or descending the inclined plane, the top part, where the boats or rafts are received, remains always level, the hind wheels being the largest, and the fore wheels the smallest in diameter. It is fifty feet long and twenty wide, and supposed to weigh ten tons. To each end of a swing tree, is fastened a large chain which winds round the shafts of two spur wheels of twenty feet diameter; these wheels are turned by a large trundle wheel fixed on each end of the shaft of a water wheel of sixteen feet diameter; and this water wheel is put in motion by water which is supplied by a small reservoir. The machinery is constructed in such a manner, that every pound of water acting upon the water wheel, draws twenty-four pounds of weight upon the car, and twenty tons weight can be raised on the car without difficulty. When the car is sunk in the Lower Canal, at the foot of the inclined plane, the boat is floated on, the water wheel is then put in motion, and the car is drawn up on the inclined plane, by means of the chains fastened to the swing tree, and winding round the shafts of the spur wheels. As the car is mounting it discharges all the water it contained, by means of apertures made for the purpose, and leaves the boat dry, resting on the top. When it is wound up to a level with the Upper Canal, the flaps on the back part, and on each side are hoisted, the apertures shut up, and the water let in by means of opening the gates of the bason; this sets the boat afloat, which is then discharged into the bason, and from thence into the canal. The operation of floating on a boat in the Lower Canal, drawing it up, and discharging it again in the upper bason, requires about fifteen minutes time, of which about six minutes are employed in the act of drawing it up.

About a mile below the inclined plane, are the Willemanstets Falls, round which a canal has likewise been constructed, by means of a dam of round sticks of timber, thrown up parrallel with the east bank of the river, at the distance of about twenty feet; the vacancies between the sticks of timber, which are braced and secured by cross sticks, are filled up with stones, and the inside planked against the

water. This canal is about a mile in length, and at the bottom of it are two locks, constructed of square timber, braced across, and stones thrown in to fill up the vacancies. The fall from the head of the canal, to the bottom of the lower lock, is sixteen feet, and it takes about five minutes to pass through each lock.

The construction of the Lower Canals saves also the distance of six miles land carriage. The toll as fixed by law is,

	Cts.
For one ton of merchandize,	75
— one thousand feet of boards,	75
— all other timber, in the same proportion,	
— empty boats for every ton weight which they are able to carry,	16⅔

The machine or car has been in operation ever since the 16th of April, 1795. But the erection of the dam at South-Hadley, having set up the water in the river, so as to overflow some meadows in the neighbourhood of the towns of Hadley and Northampton, and leave a number of ponds of stagnant water, which it is supposed have had the effect to produce the fever and ague, and other disorders, the complaints of the sufferers in those towns, have obliged the company to take away the dam, which has been effected this fall, and which must stop the operation of the works. But it is to be hoped that the legislature will not suffer an object of such magnitude, and of such extensive use to the community at large, to be abandoned; but by granting timely relief, enable the company to prosecute their plans, by devising means to supply the canal with water, with the aid of machinery, independent of the erection of a dam.

The salmon and shad fishery has of late become a great object in the vicinity of the Lower Canals. The people living in that neighbourhood have built as many as fourteen wharves in the river, at the foot of the South-Hadley Falls, where they fish about three weeks in the month of May. They draw up their nets against those wharves, and catch sometimes as many as twelve hundred fish at one haul, which, it is said, will fill twenty barrels. It is also said that the owners of one of these wharves caught fish in one season, to an amount which, after deducting all the expenses, cleared them the sum of four thousand eight hundred dollars!

Both the Upper and Lower Canals are calculated for the passage of boats of sixty feet long, from eight to nine feet wide, drawing twenty-two inches of water, and carrying from ten to fifteen tons of merchandise. The rafts which come down Connecticut river, contain sometimes three hundred thousand feet of boards and upward; but they are composed of several parts or divisions, which are fastened together and loosened as occasion requires; each part or division is called a box, which contains from five to eight thousand feet of boards; is from fifty to sixty feet long, and from twelve to thirteen feet wide, and is let through the locks separately. Both boats and rafts are generally navigated by two, or at most three men, though the boatmen hire additional assistance, when, in going with boats up the river, they come to swift water, and are heavy loaded.

The stock of both companies is divided into 504 shares each, of which about one half belongs to a company of gentlemen in Holland. The corporation of the Upper Canals has expended 100,201 dollars, 26 cents; and that of the Lower Canals 81,375 dollars, exclusive of the toll received."

Middlesex Canal.] The project of this canal, the most expensive, hazardous, and useful to the publick, of any which has hitherto been devised in New-England, was first made publick in June, 1793, when the legislature, ever ready to encourage useful enterprises, incorporated JAMES SULLIVAN, Esq. and others, men of property and respectability, by the name and style of "*The Proprietors of the Middlesex Canal,*" for the purpose of carrying it into execution. The act gave power to elect a President and other officers, to take lands necessary for their purpose, on equitable appraisement; and required the corporation to remunerate all damages done to private property, in the prosecution of their plan.

The object of the corporation was to open a water communication between the harbour of Boston, and the Merrimack river, at a point 30 miles north of Boston, for the purpose of facilitating the transportation of the produce of an immense and fertile country, lying on the Merrimack and its branches. A main branch of this river issues from Winnipiseogee Lake, in New-Hampshire, about 130 miles from Boston, and pursuing a southerly course, approaches within 30 miles of that town; and then turning eastwardly runs 40 miles into the sea at Newburyport. Immense quantities of excellent timber grow around this lake, along the banks of the river and its branches, and around the Massabesick pond, which lies a few miles east of the Merrimack, and which is to be connected with the river by a canal. In this fertile and thrifty country, grain, beef, pork, butter, cheese, and other articles for market, are to be found to an immense amount; and in return for which are required large supplies of West-India, and other foreign heavy articles. To provide water carriage for the transportation of these articles, to induce to the opening of other canals to communicate with the main canal, and with the Merrimack, and thus to open an extensive intercourse by water, between Boston and the interiour country, are the grand objects of the corporation.

The novelty of this scheme denied to its projectors the means of estimating with accuracy the sum which would be necessary to carry it into effect; they were willing, however, at the outset, to risque 110,000*l.* lawful money, equal to 336,700 dollars. As no person appeared to enter into a contract for the whole work, the corporation commenced their operations, and have hitherto proceeded, by hiring labourers by the day, but principally by small contracts for portions of the work.

Concord river, which passes in a sluggish stream through Sudbury meadows, Concord and Billerica into the Merrimack, at a fall in the town last mentioned, 4 miles from its mouth, is, in the summer season, 107 feet higher than the waters in Boston harbour, at full tide. This river is the reservoir of the Middlesex canal. From the fall above mentioned, north, five miles and three quarters, to the Merri-

mack, the canal has for several years been completed and in use. The Merrimack is 21 feet below the level of this part of the canal; which descends this distance into the Merrimack, by means of three locks, formed of free-stone laid in mortar. The lock next the river is called the first lock. This is 90 feet long, and twelve wide. The earth is removed below the bed of the river, to prevent the undermining of the works, and filled with an immense quantity of common stones. On these is laid a floor of oak timber, hewed two feet square, on which is another floor of similar timber laid crosswise, and then a floor of 3 inch plank, all well spiked and trunnelled. On this base the walls are raised 18 feet high, and 6 or 7 feet thick. The walls are constructed of a very extraordinary species of stone taken from a vast ledge in the neighbourhood, which is the property of the corporation. These stones are with little labour taken from the ledge, of any manageable dimensions, and easily yield to the hammer. The second and third locks are of the same length and construction, the second 16, the third 14 feet high. The culverts and gates are so well contrived and made, that a boat or raft may pass the three locks in eight minutes. The workmanship of these locks, in point of neatness and strength, equals any piece of stone work in the United States. To behold and pass through them, is worth a journey of an hundred miles.

Having ascended 21 feet from the Merrimack, through these locks, to the level of the canal, it proceeds to the Concord river, which it crosses on its surface, and passes several other rivers and smaller streams, on aqueduct bridges, preserving the same level for 11 miles. In this distance Shawsheen river is passed on an aqueduct bridge more than 20 feet above its surface; and no spot, two or three excepted, required to be dug more than 20 feet deep. In two places were ledges, the cutting a passage through which, was very laborious and expensive.

At the end of 11 miles is another lock of seven feet descent, and a mile and a half further, another of the same height and dimensions. Thence to Woburn the land is favourable to the design, and there is neither lock nor sluice in this distance. In order, however, to preserve the level of the canal, banks, in some places 12 or 13 feet high, have been raised at considerable expense, and which, in a course of years, are found to be more solid and impenetrable by water, than the earth in its natural state. In several places where these banks have been raised on morasses, they have sunk to such a depth, as to occasion great expense to the proprietors.

In the line descending from the Concord to the level of the sea, thirteen locks are required, so divided as to make a descent in the whole of one hundred and seven feet. These locks are of wood, each containing one hundred tons of timber, strongly built, planked inside, and supported outside with a dry stone wall.

The original project was to drop the canal into Horn Pond, through a declivity of 57 feet, by means of 7 locks; and to make that pond, nearly a mile in length, a part of the canal. But it is now wisely concluded to avoid that pond, and to cut the canal and form the locks on the east side of it. It is also determined to avoid, in like manner, Mystick pond, into which the tide flows, and through which, it was

originally intended, the canal should pass. These two alterations will render it necessary to *cut* three miles further than was at first contemplated; but then incalculable advantage will result from the alterations, because, agreeably to a first principle in canalling, it will give a complete command of all the water in the canal at all times, which could not have been the case had the original plan of using these ponds as part of the canal, been pursued. Besides, upon the improved plan, the water in the canal, at the commencement of the severe weather, can be drawn off; and should there afterwards be a soft and open season, it can be filled and used even in the winter, and also immediately on the opening of the spring, which could not be done upon the original plan, because the ice in these ponds, which would be a long time dissolving, would prevent it.

At Medford, on the bank of Mystick river, the canal has such an elevation above the tide, that it crosses that river on an aqueduct bridge, and is then carried to Charlestown, and terminates at present in the mill-pond in that town. At and near the mouth of the canal are three locks. The canal was completed and has been in operation since the summer of 1804.

Whether this canal is to be productive property to the proprietors, can certainly be known, only from experience. But when it is considered, that into the country to which it opens a communication, there is now transported by teams, immense quantities of salt, West-India and other goods; and that from this country are now brought, in the same manner, beef, pork, pot and pearl-ashes, grain, butter, cheese and other articles to a vast and increasing amount, and at a great expense; all which business can, and probably will be done upon the canal at a small part of the expense now incurred;* and when it is considered also, what quantities of wood, timber and stone will be wanted in the navy-yard, Boston and its vicinity, an inexhaustible supply of which are found on the waters connected with this canal, there can remain little doubt but that the proprietors will be liberally compensated for their hazardous and expensive enterprise.

The property of the canal is divided into eight hundred shares. The legislature have given the corporation the powers and exclusive right of cutting canals any where in the county of Middlesex. The toll established by law is one sixteenth of a dollar for each ton carried one mile on the canal; and this is to be continued to the proprietors and their successors forever. Should this effort be crowned with success, there can be no doubt that other works of the same kind will be undertaken in different parts of the country. Every project to save the labour of men and cattle, in the transportation of articles, is peculiarly important to an agricultural country, like that of the United States.

* On this canal it has been proved by experiment, that one horse will draw 30 tons, at the rate of about 3 miles an hour. We have seen a yoke of oxen drawing a raft of timber of 400 tons, at the rate of five and a half miles in 6 hours. The intention is to have the water in the canal perfectly still, excepting the small motion given to it by filling the locks; the boats, of course, can pass one way with as much ease as the other.

There is an expectation of opening a communication, between the Connecticut and Merrimack rivers, by means of the Sugar river, which runs into the Connecticut, and the Contoocook, which runs into the Merrimack, or through the head waters of Miller's river.

Turnpikes.] Turnpike roads have been made, on the post road between Brookfield and Wilbraham, through Western and Palmer; between Northampton and Pittsfield; from Northampton to Shrewsbury, through Amherst, Hardwich, &c.; from Thompson in Connecticut, through Douglass, and which is to be continued through Dedham to Boston. From Boston through Dedham to Providence; from Boston to Plymouth; from Salem through Lynn, Chelsea, Charlestown, to Boston—and one nearly completed from Newburyport to Boston. Many others are either completed, in progress, or contemplated, in various parts of the state.

Curiosities.] In the north part of the township of Adams, in Berkshire county, not half a mile from Stamford in Vermont, is a natural curiosity which merits a description. A pretty mill stream, called Hudson's Brook, which rises in Vermont, and falls into the north branch of Hoosuck river, has for 30 or 40 rods formed a very deep channel through a quarry of white marble. The hill, gradually descending towards the south, terminates in a steep precipice, down which, probably, the water once tumbled. But finding in some places natural chasms in the rocks, and in others wearing them away, as is evident from their appearance, it has formed a channel, which, in some places, is more than 60 feet deep. Over this channel, where deepest, some of the rocks remain, and form a natural bridge. From the top of this bridge to the water, it is 62 feet; its length is about 12 or 15, and its breadth about 10. Partly under this bridge, and about 10 or 12 feet below it, is another, which is wider but not so long; for at the east end they form one body of rock, 12 or 14 feet thick, and under this the water flows. It is evident, from the appearance of the rocks, that the water, in some places, formerly flowed 40 or 50 feet above its present bed. Many cavities, of different figures and dimensions, but generally circular, are worn out in the rocks. One of these in the solid rock, is about four feet in diameter, and four or five feet deep; the rock is on one side worn through at the bottom. A little above the bridge, on the west side of the chasm, is a cave or little room, which has a convenient entrance at the north, and a passage out at the east. From the west side of this cave, a chasm extends into the hill; but soon becomes too narrow to pass. The rocks here, which are mostly white, though in some places clouded or streaked with other colours, appear to be of that species of coarse white marble which is common at Lanesborough, and in other towns in Berkshire county.

In the town of Wrentham, about two miles south-east of the meeting-house, is a curious cavern, called *Wamponi's Rock*, from an Indian family of that name who resided in it for a number of years. It is situated on the south side of a hill, and is surrounded by a number of broken rocks. It is nearly square, each side measuring about 9 feet. The height is about 8 feet in front, but from the centre it lessens to about 4 feet. At present it serves only as a shelter for cattle

and sheep, as do one or two other rocks or caves in the town, formerly inhabited by Indians.

Under this article we mention the falls of Powow river, which rises in New-Hampshire, and falls into the Merrimack between Salisbury and Amesbury, in the county of Essex. At these falls, the descent of the water, in the distance of 50 rods, is 100 feet, and in its passage carries one bloomery, five saw-mills, seven grist-mills, two linseed-oil-mills, one fulling-mill, and one snuff-mill, besides several wheels, auxiliary to different labours. The rapid fall of the water—the dams at very short distances crossing the river—the various wheels and mills arising almost immediately one over another—and the very irregular and grotesque situation of the houses and other buildings on the adjoining grounds, give this place a romantick appearance, and afford, in the whole, one of the most singular views to be found in this country.

Lynn Beach may be reckoned a curiosity. It is one mile in length, and connects the peninsula called Nahant with the main land. This is a place of resort for parties of pleasure from Boston, Charlestown, Salem and Marblehead, in the summer season. The beach is used as a race ground, for which it is well calculated, being level, smooth and hard.

From the road passing from Newbury to Ipswich, the ocean is generally in sight. The barrier against it, this distance, is a beach of sand thrown up in a thousand little hills and vallies, of every fantastical and romantick figure, affording a prospect superiour in its kind to any perhaps in America. On these little hills, in many places, are beautiful tufts of bushes, which form fine verdant crowns, happily contrasted with their pale coloured bases. They bear a striking resemblance to snow drifts, formed by a violent wind. Between this beach and the main land is a remarkable marsh, a mile in breadth, extending nearly the whole distance from Newbury to Ipswich, which is 12 miles.

In Rutland, on the farm of Mr. W. White, has lately been found a large stone, on which is a line of considerable length, in characters, which our correspondent supposes to be Ethiopian. They are regularly placed, and the strokes are filled with a black composition nearly as hard as the stone.

Minerals, and other Fossils.] Iron ore, in immense quantities, is found in various parts of this state, particularly in the old colony of Plymouth, which has become the seat of the iron manufactures. In 1795, in the towns of Taunton, Bridgewater, Norton, Needham, Plymouth, Kingston, Stoughton and Pautucket, in which slitting mills were erected, there were 1732 tons of iron cut and rolled, 619 tons of which were rolled into plates, for hooping casks. One company has been formed, which annually manufacture into nails, of a quality equal to those imported, 500 tons of iron. The number of spikes and nails made in this state is supposed now to be twice as large as that made in 1788, and is still increasing, and will probably soon preclude all foreign importations; and from the abundance of the raw material, may become an article of export. Very valuable iron-works, on an extensive scale, have been erected, and are now in oper-

ation, at Plymouth. A tide-mill, for slitting iron, was erected in 1796 and 1797, at Danvers. On the same dam are a grist-mill, an anchor shop, a scythe shop, and another for manufacturing shovels.

Copper ore is found at Leverett in the county of Hampshire, and at Attleborough in the county of Bristol. Several mines of black lead have been discovered in Brimfield, in Hampshire county; and white pipe-clay, and yellow and red ochre, at Martha's Vineyard, and in other places. Alum slate, or stone, has been found in some parts; and also ruddle, or a red earth, which has been used as a ground colour for priming, instead of Spanish brown. In a quarry of lime-stone, in Newbury, in the county of Essex, is found the *Asbestos*, or incombustible cotton, as it has been called. Marble has been found in the same vicinity, and it is conjectured that there are considerable beds of it. The specimens of it already exhibited, have been beautifully variegated in colour, and admit an admirable polish. A marble quarry, at Lanesborough, affords very good marble.

In the town of Brookfield is found a very large quantity of rocks, called *pyrites*, so highly impregnated with sulphur, vitriol and alum, that if properly manufactured, it is thought, would yield a sufficient quantity of those valuable articles to supply the United States for half a century. This rock, when first taken from its bed, is nearly as hard as flint, but an exposure of it to the air, and pouring water on it, softens it to such a degree that it is easily pulverized. The process by which the vitriol, commonly called *copperas*, is obtained, is very simple and not very expensive; that by which the alum is procured, is more difficult. The sulphur is with more difficulty obtained; but from various experiments made by Joseph Greenleaf, Esq. of Boston,* and others, in 1775, it appears that great quantities of the flour of sulphur may be extracted by sublimation. It is judged from experiments, that one half, at least, of the rock is composed of these valuable articles. It is remarkable that all the rocks of this kind which were noticed, were elevated about 15 degrees above the horizon, and all pointing the same way. These rocks certainly furnish a treasure, from whence immense wealth may be drawn, and seem worthy of legislative attention.

A single instance of an *oil stone*, used by goldsmiths and engravers, for smoothing their tools, was found in the year 1783, in Salisbury, in this state. It was picked up by chance in a field of moist ground, and had the appearance of a piece of *Castile soap*. When polished for use, it was nearly of a chocolate colour, somewhat clouded. These stones are very scarce and dear, and are usually imported from Turkey.

Mineral Springs.] Several mineral springs have been found in different parts of the state; particularly at Lynn, Wrentham, Menotomy parish in Cambridge, &c. but none are celebrated as places of resort for invalids.

Literary, Humane, and other Societies.] These institutions in Massachusetts exhibit a fair trait in the character of the inhabitants. A-

* From whose papers, the author, to whom they were obligingly lent, has been enabled to give this information to the publick.

mong the first literary institutions in this state, is the AMERICAN ACADEMY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES, incorporated May 4, 1780. It is declared in the act, that the end and design of the institution is to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural history of the country, and to determine the uses to which the various natural productions of the country may be applied. Also to promote and encourage medical discoveries, mathematical disquisitions, philosophical inquiries and experiments; astronomical, meteorological and geographical observations, improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures, commerce, and the cultivation of every science that may tend to advance a free, independent and virtuous people. There are never to be more than two hundred members, nor less than forty. This society has four stated annual meetings.

The MASSACHUSETTS CHARITABLE SOCIETY, incorporated December 16, 1779, is intended for the mutual aid of themselves and families, who may be distressed by any of the adverse accidents of life, and for the comforting and relieving of widows and orphans of their deceased members. The members of this society meet annually, and are not to exceed an hundred in number.

The BOSTON EPISCOPAL CHARITABLE SOCIETY, first instituted in 1724, and incorporated February 12, 1784, has for its object, charity to such as are of the Episcopal church, and to such others as the society shall think fit; but more especially the relief of those who are members of, and benefactors to the society, and afterwards become suitable objects of its charity. The members of this society meet annually, and are not to exceed one hundred in number.

The MASSACHUSETTS MEDICAL SOCIETY was incorporated November 1, 1781. The design of this institution is to promote medical and surgical knowledge, inquiries into the animal economy, and the properties and effects of medicine, by encouraging a free intercourse with the gentlemen of the faculty throughout the United States of America, and a friendly correspondence with the eminent in those professions throughout the world. The number of *Fellows* who are inhabitants of the state, cannot exceed seventy. The present number is sixty-one, and thirteen have died since its establishment. The powers vested in the society are—To choose their officers, and enact any laws for their own government which are not repugnant to the laws of the commonwealth—To use a common seal—To sue and be sued—To hold real estate of the annual income of £200, and personal estate of the annual income of £600—To elect, suspend, expel or disfranchise any fellows of the society—To describe and point out, from time to time, such a mode of medical instruction or education as they shall judge requisite for candidates for the practice of physick and surgery—To examine all candidates who shall offer themselves for examination respecting their skill in the profession—And to give letters testimonial of their approbation to all such as may be duly qualified to practise.*

* The qualifications required of candidates for examination, and the books recommended by the society, are published in Fleet's Massachusetts Register, A. D. 1791.

Committees are appointed in each county to receive communications from, and to correspond with, their medical brethren who are not fellows of the society; and this has led to the formation of several medical associations, whose views are to aid the laudable designs of this important institution.

Further to evidence their humanity and benevolence, a number of the medical and other gentlemen, in the town of Boston, in 1785, formed a society by the name of the HUMANE SOCIETY, for the purpose of recovering persons apparently dead, from drowning, suffocation, strangling and other accidents. This society, which was incorporated in 1791, have erected seven huts, furnished with wood, straw, cabbins, tinder-boxes, blankets, &c. two on Lovel's Island, one on Calf Island, both in Boston harbour, two on Nantasket beach, and another on Scituate beach near Marshfield, for the comfort of shipwrecked seamen. Huts of the same kind are erected on Plum Island, near Newbury, by the Marine Society of that place, already mentioned; and there are also some contiguous to Hampton and Salisbury beach. The lives of 159 persons had been preserved from death, by means of the exertions of this Society, from January, 1785, to June, 1801.

At their semiannual meetings, a publick discourse is delivered by some person appointed by the trustees for that purpose, on some medical or other subject connected with the principal object of the society; and as a stimulus to investigation, and a reward of merit, a medal is adjudged annually by the president and trustees, to the person who exhibits the most approved dissertation.

The SOCIETY FOR PROPAGATING THE GOSPEL among the Indians and others in North-America, was incorporated November 19, 1787. They are enabled to receive subscriptions of charitably disposed persons, and may take any personal estate in succession. All donations to the society, either by subscriptions, legacy or otherwise, excepting such as may be differently appropriated by the donors, to make a part of, or be put into the capital stock of the society, which is to be put out on interest on good security, or otherwise improved to the best advantage, and the income and profits are to be applied to the purposes aforesaid, in such manner as the society shall judge most conducive to answer the design of their institution. For several years past, missionaries have been appointed and supported by the society to visit the eastern parts of the district of Maine, where the people are generally destitute of the means of religious instruction, and to spend the summer months with them. The success of these missions has been highly satisfactory to the society. Several thousand books of different kinds, suited to the state of the people, have been purchased by the society's funds, and distributed among them and the Oneida Indians.

A part of this society are a board of commissioners from the Scot's society for promoting Christian knowledge among the Indians in America.

The MASSACHUSETTS MISSIONARY SOCIETY, instituted in 1799; the HAMPSHIRE MISSIONARY SOCIETY, instituted about the year 1800; the BERKSHIRE AND COLUMBIA MISSIONARY SOCIETY; the

Massachusetts Baptist Missionary Society, instituted May, 1802; and the Massachusetts Society for promoting Christian knowledge, founded 1804. All these societies are flourishing and active in promoting the great objects of their institution.

The Massachusetts Society for promoting Agriculture was incorporated in 1792. A considerable sum of money has been raised for establishing a fund to defray the expense of premiums and bounties, which may be voted by the society.

A society was established in this state, in 1791, called the Historical Society, the professed design of which is to collect, preserve, and communicate materials for a complete history of this country from the beginning of its settlement. They have published eight volumes of their collections.

Besides these, there is a Marine Society, of ancient date. The Massachusetts Congregational Society, incorporated for the relief of the widows and children of deceased clergymen.

The Middlesex Medical Society, founded in the year 1790, for the cultivation and diffusion of medical knowledge.

A Society for the aid of Immigrants, instituted in 1793, whose benevolent object is expressed in the name by which they have distinguished their society. The meetings of this society have been suspended.

The Massachusetts Charitable Fire Society, instituted in 1794, for the purpose of relieving such as may suffer by fire, and of stimulating genius to useful discoveries, tending to secure the lives and property of their fellow men from destruction by that element.

The Boston Mechanick Association, established in 1795. Its design is to promote and regulate the arts.

The Boston Medical Dispensary, instituted Oct. 1796, for the medical relief of necessitous persons, who are not suitable subjects for an alms-house.

In Boston, Salem and Newburyport, Female Asylums are instituted for the purpose of educating orphan and other indigent female children.

The Merrimack Humane Society was incorporated 1804.

This state has the greatest number of societies for the promotion of useful knowledge and human happiness; and as they are founded on the broad basis of *benevolence*, *patriotism* and *charity*, they cannot fail to prosper. These institutions, which are fast increasing in almost every state in the union, are so many evidences of the advanced and advancing state of civilization and improvement in this country, and of the excellence of our national government. They prove likewise that a free republican government, like ours, is the most happily calculated to promote a general diffusion of useful knowledge, and the most favourable to the benevolent and humane feelings of the human heart.

Literature, Colleges, Academies, &c.] According to the laws of this commonwealth, every town having fifty householders or upwards, is to be provided with one or more schoolmasters to teach children and youth to read and write, and instruct them in the English language, arithmetick, orthography and decent behaviour; and where any town has 200 families, there is also to be a grammar school set

up therein, and some discreet person, well instructed in the Latin, Greek and English languages, procured to keep the same, and be suitably paid by the inhabitants. The penalty for neglect of schools in towns of 50 families, is 10*l.*; those of 100 families, 20*l.*; of 150, 30*l.*

These laws respecting schools, are not so well regarded in many parts of the state, as the wise purposes which they were intended to answer, and the happiness of the people, require.

In Boston there are seven publick schools, supported wholly at the expense of the town, and in which the children of *every* class of citizens freely associate. In the Latin grammar school the rudiments of the Latin and Greek languages are taught, and boys qualified for the universities; into this school none are admitted till ten years of age, having been previously well instructed in English grammar. In the three English grammar schools, the children of *both* sexes, from 7 to 14 years of age, are instructed in spelling, accenting and reading the English language, both prose and verse, with propriety; also in English grammar and composition, together with the rudiments of geography; in the other three, the same children are taught writing and arithmetick. These schools are attended alternately, and each of them is furnished with an usher or assistant.

They are all under the immediate care of a committee of twenty-one gentlemen, for the time being, chosen annually, whose duty it is "to visit the schools at least once in three months, to examine the scholars in the various branches in which they are taught, to devise the best methods for the instruction and government of the schools, to give such advice to the masters as they shall think expedient, and by all proper methods to excite in the children a laudable ambition to excel in a virtuous, amiable deportment, and in every branch of useful knowledge." Besides these, there are several private schools, for instruction in the English, Latin and French languages, in writing, arithmetick and the higher branches of mathematicks, and also in musick and dancing. Perhaps there is not a town in the world, the youth of which more fully enjoy the benefits of school education, than Boston. And when we consider how inseparably the happiness and prosperity of our country, and the existence of our present happy government, are connected with the education of children, too much credit cannot be given to the enlightened citizens of this town, for the attention they have paid to this important business, and the worthy example they have exhibited for the imitation of others. The schools in Charlestown are under the direction of a board of incorporated trustees.

Next in importance to the grammar schools are the academies, in which, as well as in the grammar schools, young gentlemen are fitted for admission to the University.

Dummer Academy, in Byfield parish, Newbury, was founded as early as 1756, by means of a liberal donation from the Hon. William Dummer, formerly lieutenant-governour, and a worthy man, whose name it has ever since retained. It was opened in 1763, and incorporated by an act of the General Court, in 1782. By the act the number of trustees is not to exceed 15, who are to manage the funds,

which produce about a thousand dollars a year. The students pay nothing for tuition. The buildings are convenient, situated pleasantly on the banks of Parker's river, upon the turnpike road from Newburyport to Boston. It has a library of well selected books.

Phillips' Academy, in Andover, was founded and handsomely endowed April 21, 1778, by the Honourable Samuel Phillips, Esq. of Andover, in the county of Essex, and commonwealth of Massachusetts, and his brother the Honourable John Phillips, L. L. D. of Exeter, in the state of New-Hampshire, both deceased. It was incorporated October 4, 1780. It is under the direction of thirteen trustees of respectable characters, and the immediate care of a principal, (who is one of the trustees ex officio) an assistant and a writing master. They are accommodated with a large and elegant building erected at the expense of the founders, and their brother the Honourable William Phillips, Esq. of Boston. It is situated on a delightful eminence, near the mansion house of the Hon. Samuel Phillips, Esq. its distinguished patron, and son of the deceased founder first above named; is encompassed with a salubrious air, and commands an extensive prospect. The lower story contains a large school room, with ample accommodations for a hundred students, and two other apartments for a library and other purposes; the upper story consists of a spacious hall, sixty-four feet in length, and thirty-three feet in breadth, designed for exhibitions and other publick occasions.

The design of this foundation, according to its constitution, is, "The promotion of true piety and virtue, the instruction of youth, in the English, Latin and Greek languages; together with writing, arithmetick, practical geometry, musick and oratory, logick and geography; and such other of the liberal arts and sciences, or languages, as opportunity and ability may hereafter admit, and the trustees shall direct."

Great pains are taken by the instructors and trustees for the promotion of morals and religion, as well as sound literature, among the students under their care.

Liberal provision was made in the fund of this academy, by the late Dr. John Phillips, for the assistance of a number of young men of genius and piety, whose parents are unable to give them an education.

Leicester Academy in the town of Leicester, was incorporated in 1784. For the encouragement of this institution, Ebenezer Crafts and Jacob Davis, Esqrs. generously gave a large and commodious mansion house, lands and appurtenances, in Leicester.

Bristol Academy, at Taunton, was incorporated in 1792.

Derby Academy, at Hingham, was incorporated in 1797. Its funds are considerable, and it is named after its principal benefactor.

There are academies also at Plymouth, Deerfield, Groton, Westford, Dedham, Lynn and some other places.

These academies are designed to disseminate virtue and true piety; to promote the education of youth in the English, Latin, Greek and French languages; in writing, arithmetick, oratory, geography, practical geometry, logick, philosophy, and such other of the liberal arts and sciences, or languages, as may be thought expedient.

Harvard College, or University, takes its date from the year 1638. Two years before, the General Court voted for the erecting a publick school, or college, in Newtown, (since called Cambridge) 400l. to be paid out of the colony treasury. This was but about six years after Massachusetts began to be settled; Plymouth at that time being a distinct colony.

In the year 1638, the Rev. John Harvard, of Charlestown, died, and left a legacy of 779l. 17s. 2d. sterling, being one half of his estate to the fore-mentioned publick school. In honour to the memory of so liberal a benefactor, the Court ordered that the school should take the name of Harvard College. In 1640, the Court granted the income of Charlestown ferry as a perpetual revenue to the college; and this year the Rev. Henry Dunster was appointed president, there having been before that time only a preceptor or professor, and an assistant.

In the year 1642, (when the first class finished their literary course, and the degree of Bachelor of Arts was conferred on them) the General Court passed an act constituting a board of overseers, "for the well ordering and managing of the said college," consisting of the governour and deputy-governour for the time being, and all the magistrates of the jurisdiction, together with the teaching elders of Cambridge, Watertown, Charlestown, Boston, Roxbury and Dorchester, and the president of the college for the time being.

In 1650, the college received its first charter from the court, appointing a corporation consisting of seven persons, viz. a president, five fellows and a treasurer, to have perpetual succession by election to their offices: Their style is, "The President and Fellows of Harvard College." To this body was committed all the estate of the college; and they have the care of all donations and bequests to the institution. After this charter was granted, the board of overseers continued a distinct branch of the government; and these two bodies form the legislature of the college.

After the declaration of the independence of the United States, the foregoing charter was established by the constitution of Massachusetts, and the governour and lieutenant-governour for the time being, together with the council and senate of the commonwealth, the president for the time being, and the congregational ministers of the aforesaid six towns, were declared successors of the old board of overseers.

All elections to fill up vacancies in their own body are made by the corporation; they also choose all the executive officers; but all these elections are laid before the board of overseers for their concurrence, as also all their votes for the enaction of standing laws, granting of salaries to the officers of the university, and conferring of academical degrees. Other affairs respecting the university, the corporation manage according to their own discretion.

The executive government consists of the president, three professors, four tutors, a regent and the librarian. They watch over the morals of the students, see that the standing laws are obeyed, and make discretionary regulations in cases not provided for by the laws.

The professors and tutors give instruction in the university. There is a professor of divinity, a professor of mathematicks and natural philosophy, and a professor of Hebrew and other oriental languages.* The two first of these professorships were founded by Mr. Thomas Hollis of London, merchant; the divinity professorship in 1722; the mathematical professorship in 1726; the professorship of Hebrew, &c. was founded by the Hon. Thomas Hancock, Esq. in 1765. These professorships bear the names of their founders.† The professors deliver publick lectures to all the students assembled, besides which they give private instructions to each class separately, in their several branches. Every spring, the professor of mathematicks and natural philosophy, gives a full course of experimental lectures in philosophy in all its branches, the apparatus furnishing him with a complete set of instruments for the purpose. These lectures are given in the philosophy chamber to the two senior classes assembled together; so that each class has the lectures repeated. Besides these lectures he gives annually a complete course of lectures in astronomy, both theoretical and practical, to the senior class. Of the four tutors, one teaches the Latin language; another the Greek; another logick, metaphysicks and ethicks; another geography and the elements of geometry, natural philosophy and astronomy: Each one instructs a class in rhetorick and history. The instructions of the tutors are given privately to the classes separately.

There are foundations laid for two professorships in the university, which are not yet come into operation, viz. a professorship of rhetorick and oratory, and a professorship of natural religion, moral philosophy and civil polity. The fund for the first was a legacy left by the late Nicolas Boylston, Esq. of Boston. A professor on this foundation, it is expected, will soon be chosen. The fund for the second was from the estate of the late Honourable John Alford, Esq. of Charlestown. This fund being subject to the appropriation of Mr. Alford's executors, viz. the Honourable Edmund Trowbridge of Cambridge, and Richard Cary of Charlestown, Esqrs. they sometime before their deaths, appropriated it to this purpose. These funds, as well as all other monies in the college treasury, suffered much from the depreciation of the late paper currency, so that the income has not hitherto been sufficient to maintain professors. They are, however, fast accumulating by interest, and will soon be sufficient for the purposes designed.

A professorship of Natural History was founded, and a professor chosen in April 1805, by a number of wealthy and liberal gentlemen in Boston and its vicinity.

* The professor of Hebrew, &c. is also professor of the English language, and instructs the students in English composition. This branch of instruction has been found of great utility.

† Mr. Hollis, besides founding the two professorships, gave a philosophical apparatus and a great number of valuable books, and those of that family who have succeeded him, have exhibited the like generous spirit. Mr. Thomas Hancock, who founded the Hebrew professorship, was uncle to the late governour Hancock. The governour inherited his uncle's spirit, as well as fortune, and was a very liberal benefactor to the university.

Among the presidents* and professors of this university, have been men highly distinguished both for their natural abilities and acquired accomplishments.

The branches of literature and science in which the students are instructed are, the Latin and Greek classics, the elements of English grammar and of rhetorick, the Hebrew and French languages, the belles lettres, universal grammar, English composition, oratory, ancient and modern history, logick, metaphysicks, the elements of natural and political law, geography, arithmetick, algebra, geometry, conick sections, mensuration of superficies and solids, plain trigonometry, surveying, mensuration of heights and distances, navigation, dialling, projections of the sphere, spherick geometry and trigonometry, with their application to astronomical problems, natural philosophy, astronomy and theology.

The students are annually examined very critically and fully in these several branches, each class as far as it has proceeded in the course of education, before a committee of the corporation and overseers. A day for each class is spent in this examination.

Besides this committee on the part of the overseers, who attend the examination, they also appoint a committee twice a year to visit the college, and strictly to inquire into its state. These committees make report to the board of overseers; and if they judge, that by any new regulations, the interests of religion, morality and literature can be promoted, they propose them. The corporation more frequently meet, and are always attentive to these subjects; so that great care is taken of the institution.

A course of education is completed in the university in four years, at the end of which term, those students who have complied with the other requisites, are candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Arts; and, on the morning of the commencement day, their names are presented by the president to the corporation and overseers, who vote them the degree, to be conferred after they shall have publickly performed the literary exercises appointed them by the executive government. At the end of three years from the time of their receiving the degree of Bachelor of Arts, they may be admitted to that of Master of Arts, if there be no legal impediment.

All academical degrees are publickly conferred by the president on the commencement day, which is the last Wednesday in August, an-

* PRESIDENTS *of the* UNIVERSITY *of* CAMBRIDGE, *from* 1640 *to* 1802.

1640.	Rev. Henry Dunster,	resigned	1654.
1654.	Rev. Charles Chauncy,	died	1671.
1672.	Leonard Hoar, M. D.	resigned	1675.
1675.	Rev. Uriar Oaks,	died	1681.
1682.	John Rogers,	died	1684.
1684.	Rev. Increase Mather, S. T. D.	resigned	1701.
1701.	Rev. Samuel Willard, Vice-President,	died	1707.
1708.	Hon. John Leverett, S. R. S.	died	1724.
1725.	Rev. Benjamin Wadsworth,	died	1737.
1737.	Rev. Edward Holyoke,	died	1769.
1770.	Rev. Samuel Locke, S. T. D.	resigned	1773.
1774.	Rev. Samuel Langdon, S. T. D.	resigned	1780.
1781.	Rev. Joseph Willard, S. T. D. L. L. D.	died	1804.

nually. This is one of the most splendid anniversaries in the United States.*

For a number of years before the revolution, there were from 180 to 190 undergraduates at the university. During the war they very much decreased. Since the conclusion of the war they have been gradually increasing, and there are now (1802) in the university 220 undergraduates. Indigent students are much assisted in their education.

From the establishment of this college, to the year 1800, 3674 young gentlemen had received its honours, of whom 1158 had been, or were then, ministers of the gospel. This *most ancient* of all the American literary institutions, has furnished both for the church and state, its full proportion of eminently learned and useful men.

There are no fellowships for maintaining graduates at the university; but there is a fund from the estate of Edward Hopkins, Esq. of Great-Britain, which yields a considerable sum annually, towards the support of six resident Bachelors of Arts, appointed by the corporation, which they receive after a certain term of residence and publickly delivering in the chapel four theological dissertations, two in the Latin, and two in the English language. This is a great help to those young gentlemen who wish to prosecute their theological studies at the university.

The late governour Bowdoin left the sum of £400, "the interest to be annually applied in the way of premiums for the advancement of useful and polite literature among the residents, as well graduates as undergraduates of the university. The president and fellows of the university to give forth subjects to be treated upon, judge of the performances, and determine every thing concerning this donation in such manner as they shall apprehend most conducive to the design of it." The corporation, in 1795, put this excellent design into operation.†

In the year 1782, a medical institution was formed in the university. It consists of three professorships, viz. a professorship of anatomy and surgery, a professorship of the theory and practice of physick, a professorship of chymistry and materia medica. Each of the professors is established upon a foundation. The funds for the two first were left by the late Dr. Ezekiel Hersey of Hingham, his brother the late Dr. Abner Hersey of Barnstable, and the late Mrs. Sarah Derby, formerly the wife and widow of Dr. Hersey of Hingham, afterwards the wife and widow of the late Richard Derby, Esq. of Salem. The late Dr. John Cumings of Concord added to the fund for

* The governour, lieutenant-governour, council, senate, overseers, clergy of the state, and great numbers of the most respectable gentlemen and ladies from Boston, and the different parts of the commonwealth, and strangers from various quarters, resort to Cambridge on these anniversaries, with a view to attend on the publick exercises of the day; besides crowds of other citizens, who convene here for other pleasurable purposes.

The parish church, in which the publick exercises are performed, though large, is much too small to accommodate all who wish to attend them. The erection, by subscription, of a larger and more commodious building for these exhibitions has been contemplated, but the plan for so desirable an object has not yet been taken up with sufficient spirit.

† QUERY. Would not a similar fund, for promoting the knowledge of the Greek and Roman classicks in the university, be highly subservient to the interests of literature?

the professor of the theory and practice of physick. These two are called Hersey professors. The fund for the professor of chymistry and materia medica, was left by the late Major William Erving. And this professor takes the name of the founder.

The funds not affording a sufficient compensation for these professors for their lectures, they are allowed to take moderate fees from their pupils.

These professors give a complete course of lectures in their several branches. The institution requires, "That they demonstrate the anatomy of the human body, making physiological observations on the parts, and that they explain and perform a complete system of surgical operations—That they teach their pupils the theory and practice of physick by directing and superintending, as much as may be, their private studies, lecturing on the diseases of the human body, and taking with them such as are qualified to visit their patients, making proper observations on the nature of their diseases, the peculiar circumstances attending them, and the method of cure—That whenever the professors be desired by any other gentlemen of the faculty, to visit their patients in difficult and uncommon cases, they use their endeavours to introduce with them their pupils duly qualified—That they deliver lectures on the materia medica—That they explain the theory of chymistry, and apply its principles in a course of actual experiments." Each one, as far as his own branches are concerned, steadily follows this plan.

These lectures commence on the first Wednesday in October, annually, at Cambridge, and are pursued till each professor has finished his course.

The undergraduates are not permitted to attend them till their senior year. All students in physick from any parts whatever, whether they have had a collegiate education or not, are allowed to attend, by complying with the medical regulations, and may have the use of the library during the course.*

The publick buildings belonging to the university, are Harvard Hall, Massachusetts Hall, Hollis Hall, a new hall not yet finished, and Holden Chapel. Massachusetts Hall and Hollis Hall contain private rooms, and are occupied by the tutors and students. Two students live in each room. Harvard Hall has none but publick

* The following are the regulations respecting Medical Degrees, viz. "That every student in physick who shall have taken two courses in anatomy, the theory and practice of physick, and chymistry and materia medica, and shall have studied the space of two full years with some reputable practitioner in physick, may, at the expiration of another year, offer himself a candidate for a medical degree, and after having passed through an examination, made by the medical professors or professor, (if there shall at any time be but one) in the presence of the governour of the university, and of such members of the Massachusetts Medical Society and other physicians and gentlemen as shall choose to attend at such time as the governours shall appoint; and shall also, at such publick examination, deliver and defend a dissertation in the Latin or English language, on such disease or other medical topick, as shall be assigned him by those professors, with the consent of the president; and at the end of such examination, being in the opinion of the said professors, or the major part of them (or of the professor, if there shall at any time be but one) well qualified to pursue the business of physick and surgery; such student shall be entitled to the degree of Bachelor in Physick,

rooms, which are a chapel, a dining room, library, philosophy chamber, an apartment for the philosophical apparatus, and a museum. The library contains about 14,000 volumes, and is constantly increasing by donations and by the income of legacies left by Thomas Hollis, Esq. of London, and Samuel Shapleigh, A. M. librarian, who gave three thousand dollars for this purpose. The philosophical apparatus, which cost £1400 or £1500, contains a complete set of instruments for exhibiting a course of experimental lectures in natural philosophy and astronomy. Newly invented and improved instruments are frequently added to the apparatus. Indeed the library and apparatus of this university are far superior to those of any other university in the United States. A hall, standing where Harvard now is, was consumed by fire in January, 1764, and the library and apparatus destroyed with it; so that these literary treasures have been collected since that period by the munificence of generous benefactors.

The museum contains a handsome collection of natural and artificial curiosities. It may be said to be pretty rich in minerals, owing to the munificence of Dr. Lettsom of London, in the year 1794, and of the French Republick the year following. The collection from these two sources is extensive and various.*

Provided nevertheless, that those students who have attended but one course of lectures may, upon their particular application, and special reasons pleading in their favour, be admitted to such publick examination, and if found qualified, receive a Bachelor's degree, upon their performing the above exercises.

"But those students in physick who have not had a college education, shall, previous to the foregoing examination, satisfy the president, the medical and the other professors, and the tutors, at a meeting for the purpose, of their knowledge in the Latin language, and in experimental philosophy, and in such branches of the mathematicks, as shall be judged requisite to a medical education.

"That bachelors of physick of seven years standing, and who, during that time, have been practitioners in physick, may receive a degree of Doctor in Physick, upon their being approbated by the medical professors, after being examined by them in the presence of the governours of the university, and such other gentlemen as shall choose to attend, and delivering and defending one dissertation in the Latin, and one in the English language, on such disease, or other useful medical topick, as shall be assigned them by the said professors, with the consent of the president. The Latin dissertation to be printed at their own expense."

* "We believe that America possesses invaluable treasures hid in the earth, but for want of persons skilled in mineralogy, those recesses of curiosity, wealth, and pleasure, have not been entered, and we have hitherto remained dependent on foreign countries for riches that are actually under our feet. Dr. Lettsom of London, impressed with a sense of the advantages which would accrue to this country from searching the earth for ores and fossils, generously sent a noble collection of minerals to the university in Cambridge, to serve as standard specimens.

"This collection contains, besides gold, silver, and platina, a great variety of specimens of iron ores, found in Great-Britain, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Hungary, and other places. As great a variety of copper and lead ores, from different parts of the world, and of tin from England. To these are added specimens of semi-metals, and others variously mixed and compounded. There is, besides a fine collection of salts, and saline earths, from Transylvania and the banat of Tametswear, which would be considered as very complete in any cabinet in Europe. There are, besides, a great number of spars and curious crystallizations, and petrifactions. These, together with a very valuable collection of minerals sent directly from the agency of the mines of France, by the direction of the committee of publick safety (or supreme executive) of the Republick of France, to this university, forms the richest and most extensive collection of mineralogy in the United States." [*Dr. Waterhouse.*]

A course of lectures on natural history, in which mineralogy is particularly attended to, is given every spring and autumn in the university by Dr. Waterhouse; but a professorship of natural history is now established, and William Dandridge Peck has been elected first professor on this foundation, May 1805.*

The part of Cambridge in which the colleges are situated, is very pleasant and healthful. Some gentlemen's seats in it are beautifully situated, commanding a delightful prospect of Charles river, which runs through the town, the adjoining meadows, and neighbouring hills. The college edifices stand on a large plain, facing a very pleasant and extensive common. Behind, towards the east, there is a fine rural prospect, and across the fields a rich view of Boston and Charlestown. They are about half a mile distant from the river, which is navigable for loaded vessels of nearly one hundred tons abreast of the populous part of the town. Their distance from the centre of Boston, is eight miles by the way of Roxbury, four and a half miles over Charles river bridge, three and a half miles over West-Boston bridge.

The latitude of Harvard Hall, determined by observations, is 42° 23′ 28″, and longitude west of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, 4 hours 44′ 30″, in time equal to 71° 7′ 30″.

In Williamstown, in Berkshire county, Col. Ephraim Williams laid the foundation of an academy several years since, and endowed it by a handsome donation of lands. In 1790, partly by lottery, and partly by the liberal donation of gentlemen in the town, a brick edifice was erected, 82 feet by 42, and four stories high, containing 24 rooms for students, a large school room, a dining hall, and a room for publick speaking. In 1793, this academy was erected into a college by an act of the legislature, by the name of Williams' College, in honour to its liberal founder. The languages and sciences usually taught in the American colleges are taught here. Board, tuition and other expenses of education are very low; and it has become a flourishing institution. The first publick commencement was held at this college in September, 1795, and annually since on the first Wednesday in September.

Banks.] Of these the Branch Bank in Boston, which is a part of the National Bank, is one. The Massachusetts Bank, in Boston, incorporated in 1784, the first, and for a long time the only bank in Massachusetts.

Besides these are the Union, Boston and Exchange Banks, in Boston, two in Salem, two in Newburyport, one in Gloucester, one in Nantucket, one in Plymouth, one in New-Bedford, one in Northampton, and one in Worcester, and six or seven in different parts of Maine.

* Although in the other American colleges and universities, the course of education is not perhaps altogether so regular and complete in every branch, as in the one of which we have been speaking, and although there may be some variations and probably improvements in other colleges upon the plan here pursued, yet the reader, from the foregoing sketch, may form a pretty just idea of the government and course of education in the other American colleges, especially those of New-England. With a view to give this piece of useful *general* information, this article has been extended beyond our usual length.

Chief Towns.] Boston is the capital, not only of Massachusetts, but of New-England, and lies in latitude 42° 23′ N. It is built on a peninsula of an irregular form, at the bottom of Massachusetts Bay. The neck or isthmus which is nearly settled, and which joins the peninsula to the main land, is at the south end of the town, and leads to Roxbury. The length of the town itself from this isthmus, is not quite two miles. Its breadth is various. At the entrance from Roxbury it is narrow. The greatest breadth is one mile and 139 yards. The buildings in the town cover about 1000 acres. It contained in 1800, 2370 dwelling-houses, and 24,937 inhabitants. They have greatly increased since. A part of Dorchester has been annexed to Boston and connected by a bridge, and called South-Boston.

In this town there were in 1796, 79 streets, 38 lanes, and 21 alleys, exclusive of squares and courts; and about 80 wharves and quays very convenient for vessels. The principal wharf extends 600 yards into the sea, and is covered on the north side with large and convenient stores. It far exceeds any other wharf in the United States.

In Boston are 19 houses for publick worship; of which nine are for Congregationalists, three for Episcopalians, two for Baptists, one for the Friends, one for Universalists, one for Sandemanians, one for Roman Catholicks, and one for Methodists. On the 4th of July, 1795, the corner stone of a new and magnificent state-house was laid by the governour with great parade. This building is of brick, and was finished in 1797, and is the most sightly and elegant publick building in America. The other publick buildings are the old state house, court-house, a theatre, gaol, Faneuil-hall, a new and elegant alms-house, and a powder-magazine. *Franklin-place,* adjoining the Federal-street theatre, is a great ornament to the town. It contains a monument of Dr. Franklin, from whom it takes its name, and is encompassed on two sides with the *Tontine buildings*, which in point of elegance are not exceeded perhaps, by the Adelphi in London. Here are kept, in capacious rooms, given and fitted up for the purpose, the Boston Library, and the valuable collections of the Historical Society. Most of the publick buildings are handsome, and some of them are elegant. The town is irregularly built, but as it lies in a circular form around the harbour, it exhibits a very handsome view as it is approached from the sea. On the west side of the town is the mall, a very beautiful publick walk, adorned with rows of trees, and in view of the common, which is always open to refreshing breezes. Beacon Hill, on which a brick monument, commemorative of some of the most important events of the late war, has been erected, overlooks the town from the west, and affords a fine variegated prospect. This monument is in a state of decay.

The harbour of Boston is safe, and large enough to contain 500 ships at anchor, in a good depth of water; while the entrance is so narrow as scarcely to admit two ships abreast. It is diversified, as we have already observed, with 40 islands, some of which afford rich pasturing, hay and grain; but the greater number are small and of little value. About three miles from the town is Fort Independence, which commands the entrance of the harbour. The works here have been newly erected and are very strong.

Boston market is supplied with an abundance of beef, pork, mutton, lamb, veal and poultry, and of a quality equal to any in the world; and also with meal, butter, cheese, roots, vegetables and fruits of various kinds, in great plenty. The fish market is also excellent, and not only furnishes the tables of the rich with some of the greatest dainties, but is also a singular blessing to the poor.

There are six newspapers printed in Boston; each is published twice a week. There are besides eight printing-offices employed in book printing.

At an annual meeting in March, nine selectmen are chosen for the more immediate government of the town; at the same time are elected a town clerk, a town treasurer, 12 overseers of the poor, 16 firewards, 12 clerks of the market, besides a number of other officers. Attempts have been made to change the government of the town from its present form to that of a city, but the proposed form not being consonant to the democratick spirit of the body of the people, it has been rejected.

Boston was settled as early as November 1630, from Charlestown. The peninsula was called by the natives, Shawmut; but the inhabitants of Charlestown, from the view they had of three hills, called it *Trimountain*. The new inhabitants, however, named it Boston, out of respect to the Rev. Mr. Cotton, formerly a minister of Boston in England, who was expected to come over to New-England. He was afterwards minister of the first church.

It has been computed, that during the siege in 1775, as many houses were destroyed in Boston by the British troops, as were burnt in Charlestown. Since the peace a spirit of repairs and improvement has diffused itself among the inhabitants. The streets of late have been lighted with lamps at the expense of the town; and some progress has been made towards improving them, by widening some streets and new paving others, and making foot walks on the sides, after the manner of Philadelphia and New York, which it is hoped will stimulate to like improvements through the town. An Aqueduct Corporation was established by law in 1795, for the purpose of supplying the town with water from a pond of pure water in Roxbury; and they have since accomplished their object. The principal manufactures are rum, beer, paper-hangings, of which 24,000 pieces are annually made, loaf-sugar, cordage, cards, sail-cloth, spermaceti and tallow candles, glass and stone ware; there are 30 distilleries, two breweries, 8 sugar-houses, 11 rope-walks, and a furnace for casting iron. A few years may render the metropolis of Massachusetts as famed for arts, manufactures and commerce, as any city in the United States.

Salem was settled in 1628, by governour Endicot. Its Indian name was *Naumkeag*. For size, it is the second town in Massachusetts; and in proportion to its population, the richest in the United States. The number of houses, in 1797, was 917, and of inhabitants, in 1800, 9457. Here are five Congregational churches, one for Episcopalians, and a respectable society of Friends or Quakers. The town is situated on a peninsula, formed by two small inlets of the sea, called North and South rivers. The former of these passes into Beverly harbour, and has a draw bridge across it, built many years ago at private ex

pense. At this place some part of the shipping of the town is fitted out; but the principal harbour and place for business is on the other side of the town, at South river, if that may properly be called a river, which depends on the flowing of the sea for the water it contains. So shoal is this harbour, that vessels which draw more than ten or twelve feet of water, must be laden and unladen at a distance from the wharves by the assistance of lighters. Notwithstanding this inconvenience, more navigation is owned, and more trade carried on in Salem, than in any port in the commonwealth, Boston excepted. The capital, employed in trade, is estimated at three millions of dollars. The fishery, the trade to the West-Indies, to Europe, to the coast of Africa, to the East-Indies, and the freighting business from the southern states, are here all pursued with energy and spirit. The enterprize of the merchants of this place is equalled by nothing but their indefatigable industry and severe economy. This latter virtue forms a distinguishing feature in the character of the people of this town. Some persons of rank, in former times, having carried it to an unbecoming length, gave a character to the people in general, of a disgraceful parsimony. But, whether this reproach was ever justly applied in so extensive a measure or not, nothing can be more injurious than to continue it at the present time; for it may justly be said of the inhabitants of Salem at this day, that, with a laudable attention to the acquisition of property, they exhibit a publick spirit and hospitality, alike honourable to themselves and their country. A general plainness and neatness in dress, buildings and equipage, and a certain stillness and gravity of manner, perhaps in some degree peculiar to commercial people, distinguish them from the citizens of the metropolis. It is indeed to be wished that the sober industry here so universally practised, may become more extensive through the union, and form the national character of Federal Americans.

There is a very handsome market-house in Salem, having a second story intended as a publick room. One of the managers of the Boston theatre, a few years since, applied to the proprietors to rent it to him for twenty years as a theatre, offering to finish it at his own expense, and to pay high rent for it. The proprietors met and considered the proposal, and returned him for answer, that they would sooner set the building on fire. An answer deserving of perpetual remembrance, and universal imitation.

A court-house, built in 1786, at the joint expense of the county and town, forms a principal ornament, and is executed in a style of architecture that would add to the elegance of any city in the Union. The Supreme Judicial Court holds a term here the second Tuesday of November, the Courts of Common Pleas and Sessions, the second Tuesday of March and September.

A manufactory of duck and sail-cloth was lately instituted here and is prosecuted with much spirit.

The melancholy delusion of 1692, originated in this town, in the family of the Rev. Mr. Paris, the then minister, and here was the principal theatre of the bloody business. At the upper end of the town, at a place called, from the number of executions which took place there, *Gallows Hill*, the graves of the unhappy sufferers may yet

be traced. Though this unhappy business was chiefly transacted here, it is well known that the leading people, both of church and state, in the colony, took an active part in it. Unjust therefore and highly absurd it is, to fix a peculiar odium on the town of Salem, for what was the general weakness or crime of the country. While the sarcastick smile is excited among the vain and unthinking, or the insulting abuse of illiberal prejudice is unjustly thrown on this shocking tragedy, the serious cannot but lament to find the human mind subject to so gross deceptions, and the man of candour will hasten to drop the curtain on the dismal scene.

Marblehead lies four miles south-east from Salem, and contains one Episcopal and two Congregational churches, besides a small society of Separatists. The chief attention of this town is devoted to the bank fishery, and more is done in that line than in any port in the government. The late war putting a total stop to this business, and vast numbers of the men before employed in it being lost by land and water, the peace found those who survived in circumstances of great distress. Great exertions have been made to revive the former course of business, and these exertions have been crowned with considerable success. A great number of widows and orphans caused by the war, and left at the close of it to the charge of the town, have been a melancholy burthen under which they have suffered. A lottery was granted by the legislature for the double purpose of lessening the weight of this burthen, and repairing the sea wall, which protects the harbour, and which was in imminent danger of giving way, to the great detriment, if not utter ruin of the port. The business of this town is increasing.

A peculiarity observable in the fishing towns is worthy of notice. The spring, summer and autumn being entirely occupied by the fishermen in the laborious pursuit of their employment, leaves no time for amusements. In winter every thing is different. There are few calls to labour, and all are devoted to mirth and jollity. A continual round of gaiety and dissipation occupy the fisherman's time, until returning spring calls him to returning labour, which he now pursues as eagerly as he did just before his amusement.

Newburyport, originally part of Newbury, from which its incorporation detached it in 1764, and by which and Merrimack river it is wholly encircled, is perhaps the most limited in its extent of land of any township in the commonwealth, containing but about 640 acres. It stands on the south bank of the Merrimack, 2½ miles from the mouth; and extends one mile along the river and is a quarter of a mile in breadth. The site is a most beautiful declivity. Some of the streets are narrow, but many of them are wide and handsome. They cross each other generally at right angles, but with some irregularity. From High-street, which has been highly ornamented, the prospect is eminently beautiful. The town is very flourishing. Many of the houses are handsome, and the inhabitants (as indeed are the people generally along the shore of Massachusetts) are very honourably characterized by genteel hospitality and manners, in which elegant simplicity is a most delightful ingredient. Here are 6 houses for publick worship, three for Congregationalists, one of which, erect-

ed in 1801, is elegant, two for Presbyterians, and one for Episcopalians, new and handsome. This town was formerly remarkable for the number of vessels annually built here; but after the commencement of the late war, this business in a great degree failed. The continental frigates, Boston and Hancock, were built here, besides many large private armed ships during the war. The trade to the West-Indies is carried on here with much spirit and to a great amount. Large quantities of rum are distilled, which is principally exported to the southern states. Some vessels are employed in the freighting business, and a few in the fishery. In November, 1790, there were owned in this port 6 ships, 45 brigantines, 39 schooners and 28 sloops, making in the whole 11,870 tons. A term of the courts of Common Pleas and General Sessions is held here on the last Tuesday of September.

In 1800, there were 806 houses and 5,946 inhabitants in this town. In 1794, the exports from this town amounted to 363,380 dollars.

Ipswich, by the Indians called Agawam, in the county of Essex, is 32 miles N. N. E from Boston, is divided into 5 parishes, and contained in 1800, 3,305 inhabitants. An excellent stone bridge, across Ipswich river, composed of two arches, with one solid pier in the bed of the river, connects the two parts of the town, and was executed under the direction of the late Honourable Judge Choate, in a style of strength and neatness, till lately unequalled in this country. This was heretofore a place of much more consideration than at present. Its decline is attributed to a barred harbour and shoal rivers. Its natural situation is very pleasant, and on all accounts excellently well calculated to be a large manufacturing town. The Supreme Judicial Court, the Courts of Common Pleas and Sessions, are held here once in a year; and from its central situation it appears to be the most convenient place for all the courts and publick offices in the county.

Charlestown, called by the aboriginal inhabitants, *Mishawum*, lies north of Boston, with which it is connected by Charles river bridge, and is the principal town in Middlesex county. The town, properly so called, is built on a peninsula, formed by Mystick river, on the east, and a bay, setting up from Charles river, on the west. It is very advantageously situated for health, navigation, trade and manufactures of almost all the various kinds. A dam across the mouth of the bay, which sets up from Charles river, west of the town, forming a mill pond into which the Middlesex canal empties, would afford a great number of mill seats for manufacturers, and furnish a place for extensive business. Bunker, Breed's and Cobble (now Barrell's) hills, are celebrated in the history of the American Revolution; and no less so for the elegant and delightful propects, which they afford of Boston, and its charmingly variegated harbour, of Cambridge and its colleges, and of an extensive tract of highly cultivated country. By three bridges this town is connected with Boston on the south, and Malden and Chelsea on the east. It contains within the neck or parish, (1805) about 400 houses, and about 2,800 inhabitants.* The publick buildings are a handsome Congregational church, 82 by 72 feet, with an elegant steeple, and one of the best clocks in the United

* In 1800 the number of inhabitants in the whole town was 2751, houses 349.

States, the workmanship of Mr. Simon Willard of Roxbury, and the gift of the late Thomas Russell, Esq. of Charlestown; a church for Baptists, erected in 1801, a very neat, sightly edifice with a handsome cupola. Both these buildings stand elevated, and may be seen at a great distance. Here is a commodious alms-house, pleasantly situated. The government of the United States have established one of their principal navy yards in this town, and have purchased between 40 and 50 acres for the purpose, in a very fine situation, and have begun their works. Within the limits of the navy-yard, on the banks of the Mystick, a Marine Hospital, a brick edifice, has been erected. On the westernmost point of the town, at Lynde's point, a pleasant spot, stands the State's Prison or Penitentiary-house, built of stone in 1804 and 1805, by the commonwealth.

This building is 200 feet long by 44 wide. The two wings are each four stories, making 38 feet in height; the centre five stories or 46 feet. The foundation is composed of rocks, averaging two tons in weight, laid in mortar. On this foundation is laid a tier of hewn stone, nine feet long and 20 inches thick, forming the first floor. The outer walls are four and the partition walls two feet thick. Each cell has two openings for the admission of air and light, each two feet in height and four inches wide. All the joints of the walls are cramped with iron. The doors on the basement story are made of solid wrought iron, each weighing from five to six hundred pounds. The entry is 12 feet wide, with two double iron doors, at each end of the two wings. This entry is arched with brick and covered with flat stones. The second story is like the first, except that the outer wall is but 3½ feet thick, and there is a grate at one end in place of a door. The third story is converted into rooms, and the windows double grated with iron bars two inches square. The floor of the entry is composed of hewn stone 14 feet long, weighing each from three to four tons. The fourth story is the same as the third, except that the cells are covered with large stones, the windows single grated, and the entry arched with brick. On the lower story are 28 cells, on the second 30. On the third and fourth are 16 rooms in each; in the whole 90. The middle or keeper's apartment, is five stories high. The lower story is appropriated to the purposes of cookery: The second contains the keeper's rooms; the third lodging chambers; the fourth a chapel; the fifth a hospital.

Competent judges pronounce this to be among the strongest, if not the strongest and best built prison in the world. It has these advantages over other buildings of this kind, it can neither be set on fire by the prisoners, nor be undermined. The walls are built of hard flint stone, from 6 to 14 feet long.

The yard is not yet inclosed. It is to be 400 feet long, by 300 wide, encompassed by a stone wall five feet thick at bottom, three feet at top, 15 feet high.

Including the flats, the state purchased 45 acres of ground for the accommodation of this prison, for two thousand dollars. A workshop has been erected 120 feet long, by 26 wide, two stories; also a convenient wharf. It is estimated that the whole expense of this building and out works, when completed, will not exceed two hundred

thousand dollars. In this case, compared with other similar buildings, it will be one of the cheapest thathas been erected in the United States. Great praise is due to the agents concerned in this stupendous work.

Several branches of manufactures are carried on to considerable advantage; particularly the manufacture of pot and pearl-ashes, rum, ships, leather in all its branches, silver, tin, brass and pewter. Three rope-walks have lately been erected in this town, and the increase of its houses, population, trade and navigation, have been very great within a few years past.

Cambridge and Concord are the most considerable inland towns in the county of Middlesex. The former is 3½ miles from Boston, and is a pleasant, thriving town, and the seat of the university. The latter is 19 miles N. W. of Boston, and is also a pleasant, healthy, thriving town. The Provincial Congress sat in Concord in 1774, and the General Court have frequently held their sessions here when contagious diseases have prevailed in the capital. This town is rendered famous in history by its being the place where the first opposition was made to the British troops, on the memorable 19th of April, 1775. The publick buildings are a Congregational church, a spacious stone gaol, the best in New-England, and a county court-house. The town is accommodated with three handsome bridges, one of which is 208 feet long and 18 feet wide, supported by 12 piers; built after the manner of Charles river bridge. In 1791, there were 1590 inhabitants in this town, 80 of whom were upwards of 70 years old. In 1800, the number of inhabitants was 1,679.

Quincy, a town in Norfolk county, 10 miles N. E. of Boston, taken from the ancient town of Braintree, was incorporated in 1792. This town is famous for having produced, in former and modern times, some of the first characters both in church and state. Here was born, and here is the pleasant seat and residence of that distinguished statesman, JOHN ADAMS, who has been deservedly honoured with the first offices in the gift of his countrymen, and whose important and patriotick achievements will fill and enrich many pages of the American history.

Plymouth, the principal town in the county of the same name, and the capital of the *Old Colony*, so called, is 42 miles S. E. of Boston. Before the war, the inhabitants of this town employed 90 sail of vessels chiefly in the fishing business. But in the course of the war, they were mostly taken or destroyed by the enemy, and their seamen captivated, and many of the inhabitants reduced to indigence. They have since, in a great measure, emerged from their distressed state. The harbour is spacious, but the water is not deep. This town is famous for being the first place settled by the pious ancestors of the New-Englanders, in 1620. The number of inhabitants in 1800 was 3,524.

Worcester, the shire town of the county of the same name, is the largest, best built, and most flourishing inland town in New-England, and is situated about 47 miles westward of Boston. The publick buildings in this town, are two Congregational churches, a handsome court-house, and a strong stone gaol. The inhabitants carry on a large inland trade, and manufacture pot and pearl-ashes, cotton and linen goods, besides some other articles.

Printing, in its various branches, is carried on very extensively in this town, by Isaiah Thomas, Esq. who, in the year 1791, carried through his presses two editions of the Bible; one the large royal quarto, the first of that kind published in America, the other a large folio, with 50 copperplates, besides several other books of consequence. He has since printed a handsome edition of the Octavo Bible.

Groton, Lancaster and Brookfield are handsome inland towns, the former in the county of Middlesex, 35 miles N. W. of Boston; the others in the county of Worcester.

On Connecticut river, in the county of Hampshire, there are a number of very pleasant towns, among which are Springfield and Hadley, on the east side of the river; Northampton, Hatfield, Deerfield and Greenfield on the west. The courts are held at Northampton, except Probate Courts, which are holden at Springfield, Northampton, Hadley and Deerfield. Springfield, is the oldest of these towns, having been settled as early as 1636. Its publick buildings are a Congregational church, court-house and gaol. A large quantity of the military stores of the United States are lodged here. A clear brook runs through the town from north to south, and adds much to its beauty and pleasantness, as well as convenience. The arsenal is on the hill east of the town, from which there is a rich and extensive prospect.

Stockbridge, Pittsfield, Lenox and Williamstown, are the principal towns in Berkshire county, and lie from 45 to 65 miles W. N. W. from Springfield.

Military Strength.] The militia of Massachusetts is composed of all the able-bodied white male citizens from 18 to 45 years of age, excepting from the enrolment, within those ages, all who hold any civil office of importance, either under the state or federal government; mariners, and also those who have formerly held any military commission whatever. The militia, thus embracing the greatest part of the active citizens, is completely armed and organized, and in as good a state of discipline as any real militia in the world, it being assembled by companies three times a year, for discipline, and once for revising the rolls and making returns, and also once by regiments or battalions for review and inspection. The whole is formed into ten divisions, which, in Jan. 1805, from returns then made to the governour, stood as follows:

Divisions.	Infantry.	Cavalry.	Artillery.	
1st.	5,364	352	355	
2d.	5,583	164	242	
3d.	4,933	328	290	
4th.	6,349	429	358	
5th.	8,210	249	233	
6th.	9,723	244	202	
7th.	6,118	539	306	
8th.	6,427	226	182	
9th.	2,892	127	185	
10th.	3,280	21	178	
	58,879	2,679	2,581	—Total, 64039

These divisions are subdivided into 22 brigades, 90 regiments of infantry, 59 troops composing 18 squadron or battalions of cavalry; and 54 companies of artillery; the latter are furnished each with 2 light brass pieces attached to the brigades, with tumbrils and apparatus complete; and have charge of various other heavy field pieces stationed all along the sea-coast. There is an annual return made of the whole militia to the adjutant-general, who makes out duplicate abstracts for the governour, and for the President of the United States.

Religion.] The religion of this commonwealth is established, by their excellent constitution, on a most liberal and tolerant plan. All persons, of whatever religious profession or sentiments, may worship God agreeably to the dictates of their own consciences, unmolested, provided they do not disturb the peace.

The great body of the people are Congregationalists, professing Calvinistick doctrines; but some are avowedly Arminians, and others Unitarians. These latter it is supposed are increasing.

Population.] The population of the state, as it stood in 1790 and 1800, is accurately stated in the table of divisions. The county of Essex, part of Suffolk, and part of Hampshire, are the most populous parts of the state. Essex has as many as 135 inhabitants for every square mile.

Character, Manners, &c.] See New-England.

Revenue and Taxes.] The principal sources of revenue are land and poll taxes, and the sales of new lands. Taxes are levied on all males upwards of sixteen, except such as are exempted by law—also on the number of acres of improved and unimproved land—on dwelling houses and barns, ware houses, stores, &c. These are all valued, and upon this valuation taxes are laid, so many pounds for every 1000l.

In January 1805, the funds and expenditures of the commonwealth, as received from the treasurer, were as follows, viz.

	Dols.	cts.
Amount of publick debt, funded and unfunded, nearest	1,000,000	00
Funds of the Commonwealth as estimated January, 1805,		
In United States Stocks, 6 per cents. 3 per cents. and 6 per cents. deferred, at par value, dols. 761,225 $\frac{79}{90}$. Value at market prices, January 1805, as reported to the legislature,	618,421	34
Amount of Bonds and Notes due, for sale of Lands, (good for not more than)	100,000	
$\frac{1}{3}$ Capital Stock of the Union Bank,	400,000	
$\frac{1}{3}$ ditto of the Boston Bank,	600,000	
Dividends 7 to 8 per cent. per annum.		
	1,718,421	34

Annual expense for the support of government, estimated January, 1805, nearest 175,000 dols.

Inventions and Improvements.] Great improvements have of late been made in several manufacturing machines, by which those species of manufacture in which they are employed, have been greatly facili-

tated in the execution, and fewer hands required. But the most ingenious improvement, or invention, and which most deserves notice, is a complete and elegant Planetarium, 6 feet in diameter, constructed by Mr. Joseph Pope of Boston. This is entirely a work of original genius and assiduous application, as Mr. Pope never saw a machine of the kind till his own was completed. It exhibits a proof of great strength of mind, and really does him much honour, both as a philosopher and a mechanick. This machine has been purchased for the university at Cambridge, and is a very useful and ornamental addition to the philosophical apparatus.

Mr. Jacob Perkins has lately invented a *Portable Pump*, consisting of two of his newly invented metallick pumps, of 5 inches diameter, united, and communicating with a single tube below, by which it is supplied. Wrought by two men only, it will discharge at the rate of 360 gallons a minute, or 90 tons an hour. This pump may be of great use on board of ships, and for other purposes.

Constitution.] The constitution of the commonwealth of Massachusetts established in 1780, contains a declaration of rights and a frame of government. The declaration asserts the natural freedom and equality of men—Liberty of conscience—Freedom of the press—Trial by jury—Sovereignty and independence—that all power is in the people—that hereditary honours and emoluments are inadmissible—that every subject is entitled to protection of life, liberty and property—and, in return, must obey the laws and pay his proportion of the common expense—that he shall not be obliged to accuse himself; but may be heard in his own defence—that he may keep arms; but standing armies shall not be maintained in time of peace—that no tax shall be levied without the consent of the people by their representatives—that no *ex post facto* law shall be made—that the martial law shall extend only to men in actual military service—that the legislative, executive, and judiciary powers shall be kept distinct, &c. By the frame of government, the power of legislation is lodged in a General Court, consisting of two branches, viz. a senate and a house of representatives, each having a negative upon the other. They meet annually on the last Wednesday in May. No act can be passed without the approbation of the governour, unless two thirds of both branches are in favour of it after a revisal. Either branch, or the governour and council, may require the opinion of the justices of the Supreme Judicial Court, upon important questions. Senators are chosen by districts, of which there cannot be less than thirteen. The number of counsellors and senators for the whole commonwealth is forty; the number in each district is in proportion to their publick taxes; but no district shall be so large, as to have more than six. Sixteen senators make a quorum. The representatives are chosen by the several towns, according to their numbers of rateable polls. For 150 polls one is elected; and for every addition of 225, an additional one. Their travelling expenses, to and from the General Court, are defrayed by the publick, but their wages for attendance are paid by their own towns. Impeachments, for misconduct in office, are made by the representatives, and tried by the senate; but the judgment can go only to removal from office and future disqualification. Money bills.

originate in the house of representatives, but may be altered by the senate. Representatives are privileged from arrests on mesne process. Sixty members make a quorum. The supreme executive authority is vested in a governour, who is elected annually by the people, and has a council consisting of the lieutenant-governour, and nine gentlemen chosen out of the forty, who are returned for counsellors and senators. Five counsellors make a quorum. The governour is commander of all the military force of the commonwealth. He may convene the General Court, may adjourn them, when the two branches may disagree about the time, and in their recess, may prorogue them from time to time, not exceeding ninety days—may pardon convicts, but the legislature alone can grant pardons before conviction. He commissions all officers, and with the advice of the council, appoints all judicial officers. Military officers are thus appointed ; the respective companies choose their captain and subalterns, who choose their regimental officers, who choose their brigadiers. The major-generals are appointed by the General Court. Justices of the peace are commissioned for seven years; all other judicial, and all executive and military officers continue during good behaviour, yet are removeable by the governour upon address of the legislature. The salaries of the governour and justices of the Supreme Court, cannot be diminished, although they may be enlarged. Official qualifications are as follows: For a voter, twenty-one years of age, one years residence, a freehold of three pounds annual value, or sixty pounds of any other estate—for a representative, £100 freehold, or £200 other estate, and one years residence in the town—for a senator, £300 freehold, or £600 other estate in the commonwealth, and five years residence in the district—for governour, or lieutenant-governour, £1000 freehold, and seven years residence. Every governour, lieutenant-governour, counsellor, senator, or representative, must declare that he believes the Christian religion, and has the legal qualifications. A governour, lieutenant-governour, or justice of the Supreme Court, can hold no other office. No man shall hold two of these offices, judge of probates, sheriff, register. No justices of the Supreme Court, secretary, attorney-general, treasurer, judge of probate, instructor of Harvard College, clerk, register, sheriff or custom officer can have a seat in the legislature. The privilege of Habeas Corpus cannot be suspended more than a year at one time. In 1795, if two thirds of the qualified voters desire it, a convention shall be called to revise the constitution. This period is now past; a vote for a revision could not be obtained; a convincing proof that the people feel themselves happy under their present government.

History.] See Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts, Minot's Continuation, Hannah Adams's, Morse and Parish's History of New-England. Also Minot's History of the Insurrection in Massachusetts, the publications of the Historical Society, Hazard's Historical Collections, Chalmer's Political Annals, and Gough's History of the People called Quakers.

A list of the Governours and Commanders in Chief of Massachusetts and Plymouth.

NOTE—*The year begins in January.*

Kings of England.	Governours of Massachusetts under the first charter, chosen annually by the people.	Governours of Plymouth, chosen annually by the people.
1603. James I.		1620. John Carver
1625. Charles I.		1621. William Bradford
	1630. John Winthrop	1633. Edmund Winslow
	1634. Thomas Dudley	1634. Thomas Prince
	1635. John Hayries	1635. William Bradbury
	1636. Henry Vane	1636. Edmund Winslow
	1637. John Winthrop	1637. William Bradford
	1640. Thomas Dudley	
	1641. Richard Bellingham	
	1642. John Winthrop	
	1644. John Endicot	1644. Edmund Winslow
	1645. Thomas Dudley	1645. William Bradford
	1646. John Winthrop	
1649. The Commonwealth	1649. John Endicot	
1654. Oliver Cromwell	1654. Richard Bellingham.	
	1655. John Endicot	
1658. Richard Cromwell		1657. Thomas Prince
1660. Charles II.	1665. Rich. Bellingham	
	1673. John Leverett.	1673. Josiah Winslow
	1679. Simon Bradstreet	
1685. James II.	First charter dissolved by the king.	1680. Thomas Hinckley, who held his place, except in the interruption by Andros, till the junction with Massachusetts in the year 1692.
	1686. Joseph Dudley, pr.	
	1687. Sir E. Andros gov.	
1689. William and Mary	1689. Sir E. Andros deposed by the people, and Simon Bradstreet elected president, or governour.	
	Governours of Massachusetts under the second charter, appointed by the king.	
	1692. Sir William Phipps	
1694. William III.	1694. William Stoughton, lieutenant-governour	
	1699. Earl of Bellamont	
	1700. William Stoughton, lieut. gov.	
1702. Anne	1702. May. The Council Joseph Dudley	
1714. George I.	1714. February. The Council March. Joseph Dudley	

Kings of England.	Governours of Massachusetts under the second charter, appointed by the king.
	1715. William Taylor, lieut. gov.
	1716. Samuel Shute
	1723. William Dummer, lieut. gov.
1727. George II.	1728. William Burnet
	1729. William Dummer, lieut. gov.
	1730. William Tailor, lieut. gov.
	Jonathan Belcher
	1741. William Shirley
	1749. Spencer Phips, lieut. gov.
	1753. William Shirley
	1756. Spencer Phips, lieut. gov.
	1757. April. The Council
	Thomas Pownal
1760. George III.	1760. Thomas Hutchinson, lieut. gov.
	1760. Francis Bernard
	1770. Thomas Hutchinson, lieut. gov.
	1771. Thomas Hutchinson
	1774. Thomas Gage
	Since the Revolution.
	October. A Provincial Congress
	1775. July. The Council
1776. Massachusetts became an independent state.	Governours of Massachusetts, under the new constitution, chosen annually by the people.
	1780. October. John Hancock
	1785. February. Thomas Cushing lieut. gov.*
	James Bowdoin
	1787. John Hancock
	1793. October. Samuel Adams lieut. gov.†
	1794. Samuel Adams
	1797. Increase Sumner
	1799. Moses Gill‡
	1800. Caleb Strong
	Samuel Phillips, lieut. gov.
	1803. Edward H. Robbins, lieut. gov.

* Commander in chief, upon the resignation of Governour Hancock.

† Commander in chief, upon the death of Governour Hancock.

‡ Commander in chief, upon the death of Governour Sumner.

RHODE-ISLAND AND PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Mil.
Greatest length 47 Greatest breadth 37	between	3° 11′ and 4° E. long. 41° and 42° N. lat.	1,300

Population for every square mile, 53.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north and east, by the commonwealth of Massachusetts; south by the Atlantick; west by Connecticut. These limits comprehend what is called RHODE-ISLAND AND PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS.

Civil Divisions and Population.] This state is divided into five counties, which with the number of inhabitants, follow:

Counties.	No. Towns 1800	No. Inhab. 1790	No. Inhab. 1800	No. Slaves 1800	Chief Towns.	No. Inhab. 1790	No. Inhab 1800.
Newport	7	14,300	14,845	185	Newport	6,716	6,739
Providence	9	24,391	25,854	5	Providence	6,380	7,614
Washington	7	18,075	16,135	124	S Kingston	4,131	3,428
Bristol	3	3,211	3,801	46	Bristol	1,406	1,678
Kent	4	8,848	8,487	20	Warwick	2,493	2,532
Total 5	30	68,825	69,122	380			

The number of inhabitants was, in the year

1730	15,352 Whites 2,633 Blacks	1774	54,435 Whites 5,243 Blacks
1748	29,755 Whites 4,373 Blacks	1783	48,538 Whites 3,361 Blacks
1761	35,939 Whites 4,697 Blacks	1790	67,877 Whites 948 Blacks

In 1800 the number of inhabitants was 69,122; the increase in ten years being only 297.

Bays, Harbours and Islands.] Narraganset Bay makes up from south to north, between the main land on the east and west. It embosoms many fertile islands, the principal of which are Rhode-Island, Canonnicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's and Hog Islands.

The harbours are Newport, Providence, Wickford, Patuxet, Warren and Bristol.

Rhode-Island, from which the state takes half its name, is 15 miles in length; its average breadth is about 3½ miles. It is situated between 41° 28′ and 41° 42′ N. lat. and 71° 17′ and 71° and 27′ W. lon. from Greenwich. It is divided into three townships, Newport, Portsmouth and Middletown. This island, in point of soil, climate and

situation, may be ranked among the finest and most charming in the world. In its most flourishing state, it was called, by travellers, the *Eden* of America. But the change which the ravages of war, and a decrease of business effected, was great and melancholy. Some of the most ornamental country seats were destroyed, and their fine groves, orchards and fruit-trees wantonly cut down ; and the gloom of its present decayed state is heightened by its charming natural situation, and by reflecting upon its former glory. The farming interest suffered far less injury than the commercial city of Newport, and has nearly recovered its former state. Between 30,000 and 40,000 sheep are fed on this island, besides neat cattle and horses.

Canonnicut Island lies 3 miles west of Rhode-Island, and is 7 miles in length, and on average about one mile in breadth. It was purchased of the Indians in 1657, and incorporated by act of assembly by the name of the Island of Jamestown, in 1678. At the south end of this island, called Beavertail, stands the light-house.

Block-Island, called by the Indians *Manisses*, is 21 miles S. S. W. from Newport, and is the southernmost land belonging to the state. It was erected into a township, by the name of New-Shoreham in 1672. The inhabitants of this island were formerly noted for making good cheese. They catch considerable quantities of cod-fish round the ledges near the island.

Prudence Island is not so large as Canonnicut, and lies north of it, and is a part of the township of Portsmouth.

Rivers.] Providence and Taunton rivers both fall into Narraganset bay, the former on the west, the latter on the east side of Rhode-Island. Providence river rises partly in Massachusetts, and is navigable as far as Providence for ships of 900 tons, thirty miles from the sea. Taunton river is navigable for small vessels to Taunton. Common tides rise about four feet.

Fall river is small, rising in Watuper ponds ; and, running in a N. W. direction about a mile, empties into Taunton river. It has water in the driest season, and at its junction with Taunton river, it falls about 100 feet in a short distance, furnishing many fine mill-seats, on navigable waters. Pawtuxet river is formed by two considerable streams, called the the N. W. and S. W. branches, and, 5 miles below Providence, empties into Narraganset Bay. Pawtucket river, called more northerly Blackstone's river, empties into Seekhonck river, 4 miles N. N. E. from Providence. On this river are the falls hereafter described, over which is a bridge, on the post-road to Boston, and 40 miles distant. Pawtucket is much larger than Providence or Seekhonck rivers. Two or three miles below the falls Pawtucket and Seekhonck rivers unite. The confluent stream empties into Providence river about a mile below Weybosset, or the Great Bridge. Wanaspatucket river rises in Gloucester, and in its course receives many small but unfailing streams. Upon this river stood formerly the only powder-mill in this state ; and within one mile from its mouth, there are already built, or are now building, a slitting-mill, two paper-mills, two grist-mills, with four run of stones, an oil-mill, and a saw-mill. It falls into the bay about 1½ miles N. W. of Weybosset bridge. Moshassuck river falls into the same bay three fourths

of a mile north of the bridge. These rivers united form Providence river, which, a few miles below the town, receives the name of Narraganset Bay, and affords fine fish, oysters, and lobsters in great plenty, Charles river rises in Wordin's pond, and in its course westward, receives Wood and Ashewague rivers, and other large supplies from Watchoag, Fairfield and Chapman's ponds. A junction of this with Shannock river, from the north forms Paukatuck rivers, which, in a southerly course of about 7 miles, to the sea, divides Connecticut from Rhode-Island.

In 1794, the legislature of this state appointed a committee, to view Charles river, and the adjacent country southward, and report upon the expediency of opening a communication with the sea by a canal.

Climate.] Rhode-Island is as healthful a country as any part of North-America. The winters in the maritime parts of the state are milder than in the inland country; the air being softened by a sea vapour, which also enriches the soil. The summers are delightful, especially on Rhode-Island, where the extreme heats, which prevail in other parts of America, are allayed by cool and refreshing breezes from the sea.

Fishes.] In the rivers and bays is plenty of sheeps-head, black-fish, herring, shad, lobsters, oysters and clams; and around the shores of Rhode-Island, besides those already mentioned, are cod, halibut, mackerel, bass, haddock, &c. &c. to the amount of more than seventy different kinds; so that, in the seasons of fish, the markets are alive with them. Travellers are agreed that Newport furnishes the best fish-market in the world.

Religion.] By the constitution of this state, all men professing one supreme being, are equally protected by the laws, and no particular sect, can claim pre-eminence. This unlimited liberty in religion is one principal cause why there are such a variety of religious sects in Rhode-Island. The Baptists are the most numerous of any denomination in the state. These, as well as the other Baptists in New-England, are chiefly upon the Calvinistick plan as to doctrines, and independents in regard to church government. There are, however, some who profess the Arminian tenets, and are called Arminian Baptists. Others observe the Jewish or Saturday Sabbath, from a persuasion that it was one of the ten commandments, which they plead are all in their nature moral, and were never abrogated in the New-Testament, and must at least be deemed of equal validity for publick worship as any day particularly set apart by Jesus Christ and his apostles. These are called Sabbatarian, or seventh day Baptists. There are others who are called Separate Baptists.

The other religious denominations in Rhode-Island are Congregationalists, Friends or Quakers, Episcopalians, Moravians, and Jews. Besides these there is a considerable number of the people who can be reduced to no particular denominations.

In many towns in the western parts of the state, publick worship is almost entirely neglected. They pay no taxes for the support of ecclesiasticks of any denomination; and a peculiarity which distinguishes this state from every other protestant country in the known world, excepting Virginia, is, that no contract formed by the minister

with his people for his salary is valid in law. So that ministers are dependent on the caprice of their people.

There are few clergymen in the state excepting in Providence and Newport. From the settlement of the state to this day there never has been a congregational minister settled on the west side of Providence river which includes the substance of the agricultural part of the state, containing about 1200 square miles: So permanent are the prejudicies of this people, whose ancestors were banished by the congregationalists of Massachusetts. They have not had the advantages of education, or improvements from strangers settling among them, as have the commercial towns in the state. In this whole region, a school-house or meeting-house is rarely found; not a quarter part have a bible in their houses, and a great portion of the people are unable to read or write.

Literature.] The literature of this state is confined principally to the towns of Newport and Providence. There are men of learning and abilities scattered through other towns, but they are rare. The bulk of the inhabitants in other parts of the state, are involved in greater ignorance perhaps than in most other parts of New-England. An impartial history of their transactions would evince the truth of the above observations.

At Providence is Rhode-Island college. The charter for founding this seminary of learning was granted by the general assembly of the state, by the name of the "Trustees and Fellows of the College or University, in the English colony of Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations," in 1764, in consequence of the petition of a large number of the most respectable characters in the state. By the charter, the corporation of the college consists of two separate branches, with distinct, separate and respective powers. The number of trustees is thirty-six, of whom twenty-two are of the denomination called Baptists, five of the denomination of Friends, five Episcopalians, and four Congregationalists. The same proportion of the different denominations to continue *in perpetuum*. The number of the fellows (inclusive of the president, who is a fellow ex officio) is twelve, of whom eight are Baptists, the others chosen indiscriminately from any denomination. The concurrence of both branches, by a majority of each is necessary for the validity of an act, except adjudging and conferring degrees, which exclusively belongs to the fellowship as a learned faculty. The president must be a Baptist; professors and other officers of instruction are not limited to any particular denomination. There is annually a general meeting of the corporation, on the first Wednesday in September, at which time the publick commencement is held.

This institution was first founded at Warren, in the county of Bristol, and the first commencement held there in 1769.

In the year 1770, the college was removed to Providence, where a large, elegant building was erected for its accomodation, by the generous donations of individuals, mostly from the town of Providence. It is situated on a hill to the east of the town; and while its elevated situation renders it delightful, by commanding an extensive, variegated prospect, it furnishes it with a pure, salubrious air. The edifice

is of brick, four stories high, 150 feet long, and 46 wide, with a projection of ten feet each side. It has an entry lengthwise, with rooms on each side. There are 48 rooms for the accomodation of students, and eight larger ones for publick uses. The roof is covered with slate.

From December, 1776, to June, 1782, the college edifice was used by the French and American troops for an hospital and barracks, so that the course of education was interrupted during that period. No degrees were conferred from 1776 to 1786. From 1786 the college again became regular, and is now very flourishing, containing upwards of sixty students.

This institution is under the instruction of a president, a professor of divinity, a professor of natural and experimental philosophy, a professor of mathematicks and astronomy, a professor of natural history, and three tutors. The institution has a library of between two and three thousand volumes, containing a valuable philosophical apparatus. Nearly all the funds of the college are at interest in the treasury of the state, and amount to about two thousand pounds.

At the commencement in Sept. 1804, Nicholas Brown Esq. gave to the corporation of this college five thousand dollars, as a foundation for a professorship of oratory and belles lettres, in consequence of which, agreeably to a clause in their charter, the corporation have given to the college, the name of "Brown University in Providence in the state of Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations."

At Newport there is a flourishing academy, under the direction of a rector and tutors, who teach the learned languages, English grammar geography, &c.

A law a few years since was made, establishing town-schools through the state, but was found unpopular and repealed.

Societies.] A marine society was established at Newport in 1752, for the purpose of relieving distressed widows and orphans of maritime brethren, and such of their society as may need assistance.

The Providence Society for promoting the abolition of slavery, for the relief of persons unlawfully held in bondage, and for improving the condition of the African race, commenced in 1789, and was incorporated the year following. It consists of upwards of 150 members, part of whom belong to the state of Massachusetts.

Mountains.] In the town of Bristol is Mount Hope, or as some call it Mount Haup, which is remarkable only for its having been the seat of the Indian King Phillip, near which place he was killed.

Bridges.] The great bridge, in the town of Providence, formerly called Weybosset, from a high hill of that name, which stood near the west end of the bridge, but which is now removed, and its base built upon, was, till lately, the only bridge of considerable note in this state. It is 160 feet long and 22 feet wide supported by two wooden trussels, and two stone pillars. It unites the eastern and western parts of the town, and is a place of resort in summer, affording a pleasant prospect of all vessels, entering and leaving the harbour.

The bridge over Pawtucket falls is a work of considerable magnitude and much ingenuity. These are not toll bridges.

Central and India bridges over Seekhonck river, near its mouth, east of Providence, especially the latter (built at the sole expense of the late Mr. John Brown of Providence) are works of great expense and utility.

The assembly of this state, in their session of May, 1792, passed an act incorporating three companies for the purpose of erecting three bridges, one over the upper and another over the lower ferry of Seekhonck river,* and a third over Howland's Ferry, which would unite Rhode-Island with Tiverton on the main; the two former will greatly accomodate the town of Providence, the latter, the people of Newport and others on Rhode-Island. The bridge over Howland's Ferry was completed in October, 1795. It is a noble specimen of bridge architecture, uniting elegance with strength, and does honour to the ingenious architect, Major Whiting of Norwich. The bridge is 900 feet long, 36 broad, has 42 piers, and a sliding draw upon an improved plan, which one person may remove and replace with ease. The greatest depth of water is 8½ fathoms, (51 feet) at low water. To such works of utility and enterprize every good man wishes success.

Soil and Productions.] This state, generally speaking, is a country for pasture and not for grain. A large proportion of the state is lean and barren. It however produces corn, rye, barley, oats, and in some parts wheat sufficient for home consumption; and the various kinds of grasses, fruits, and culinary roots and plants in great abundance, and in good perfection; cider is made for exportation, and the improvements which the farmers in the county of Providence, have, within the three or four last years, made in manufacturing it, is worthy of notice and imitation. The cleanliness observed in the process, and the quality of the casks into which they put it, have very deservedly gained for their cider a preference to all other, in most of the southern markets. In Johnston, Cranston and Smithfield, the three towns which at present have the most orchards in proportion to their size,† there is very little cider put up, before it is first separated from the filth and dregs, either by leaching through sand, or straining it through flannel cloths. The north-western parts of the state are but thinly inhabited, and are more rocky and barren than the other parts. The tract of land lying between North and South-Kingston on the east and Connecticut on the west, called Shannock country or Purchase, is excellent grazing land, and is inhabited by a number of large and wealthy farmers, who raise some of the finest neat cattle in New-England, weighing from 16 to 1800 weight. They keep large dairies, and make butter and cheese of the best quality and in large quantities for exportation. The Narraganset (which includes a slip of land 7 or 8 miles wide, terminated on the east by the bay of the same name, and extending from Point Judith on the south, to Hunt's

* These are the bridges mentioned above.

† The orchards in East-Greenwich and Warwick have been much more injured by canker-worms, than those in the more northern towns, where the soil is not so dry and sandy.

river, or near it, on the north) has been famed for an excellent breed of pacing horses, remarkable for their speed, and hardiness for enduring the fatigues of a journey. This breed of horses has much depreciated of late, the best mares having been purchased by people from the westward.

Trade.] Before the war, the merchants in Rhode-Island imported from Great-Britain, dry goods; from Africa, slaves; from the West-Indies, sugars, coffee and molasses; and from the neighbouring colonies, lumber and provisions. With the bills which they obtained in Surrinam and other Dutch West-India Islands, they paid their merchants in England. Their sugars they carried to Holland; the slaves from Africa, they carried to the West-Indies, together with the lumber and provisions procured from their neighbours; the rum distilled from the molasses, was carried to Africa to purchase negroes; with their dry goods from England they trafficked with the neighbouring colonies. By this kind of circuitous commerce, they subsisted and grew rich. But the war, and some other events, have had a great, and in most respects, an injurious effect upon the trade of this state. The slave trade, which was a source of wealth to many of the people in Newport, and in other parts of the state, has happily been abolished. The legislature have passed a law prohibiting ships from going to Africa for slaves, and selling them in the West-India islands; and the oath of one seaman, belonging to the ship, is sufficient evidence of the fact. This law is more favourable to the cause of humanity, than to the temporal interests of the merchants who had been engaged in this inhuman traffick. The town of Bristol carries on a considerable trade to Africa, the West-Indies, and to different parts of the United States. But by far the greatest part of the commerce of this state, is at present carried on by the inhabitants of the flourishing town of Providence. In June, 1791, there were, belonging to this port,

	Tons.	95 parts.
11 Ships, containing	3,066	24
35 Brigs	4,266	48
1 Snow	141	
1 Polaque	101	
25 Schooners	1,320	21
56 Sloops	3,047	56
Total 129 sail, containing	11,942	54

The tonnage of the whole state amounts to between 26,000 and 27,000 tons.

The present exports from the state are flax-seed, lumber, horses, cattle, beef, pork, fish, poultry, onions, butter, cheese, barley, grain, spirits, and cotton and linen goods. The imports consist of European and West-India goods, and logwood from the Bay of Honduras. Upwards of 600 vessels enter and clear annually at the different ports in this state. The amounts of exports from this state to foreign countries, for one year, ending the 30th of September, 1791, was 470,131 dollars, 9 cents. In the year ending September 30, 1793, 616,416 dollars. In 1799, the amount of exports was 1,055,273 dollars, in 1804, 1,735,671 dollars.

Light House.] For the safety and convenience of sailing into the Narraganset Bay and harbour of Newport, a light house was erected in 1749, in Beavertail, at the south end of Canonnicut island. The diameter at the base, is 24 feet, and at the top, 13 feet. The height from the ground to the top of the cornice is 58 feet, round which is a gallery, and within that stands the lanthorn, which is about 11 feet high, and 8 feet diameter. The ground the light house stands upon is about 12 feet above the surface of the sea at high water.

Manufactures.] The inhabitants of this state are advancing in this branch of business. A cotton manufactory has been erected at Providence, which from present prospects will answer the expectations of the proprietors. The warps are spun by water, with a machine which is an improvement of Mr. Arkwright's; and strong, smooth and excellent yarn is thus made both for warps and stockings. The filling of the cotton goods is spun with jennies. In these several works, five carding machines are employed, and a calender, constructed after the European manner. Jeans, fustians, denims, thicksets, velvets, &c. &c. are here manufactured and sent to the southern states. Large quantities of linen and tow cloth are made in different parts of this state for exportation. The most considerable manufactures in this state are those of iron, such as bar and sheet iron, steel, nail-rods and nails, implements of husbandry, stoves, pots and other household utensils, the iron work of shipping, anchors, bells, &c. The other manufactures of this state are rum, spirits, chocolate, paper, wool and cotton cards, &c. beside domestick manufactures for family use, which in this, in common with the other states, amount to a vast sum which cannot be ascertained.—See Article *Curiosities*.

Fossils and Minerals.] Iron ore is found in great plenty in several parts of the state. The iron works on Patuxet river, twelve miles from Providence, are supplied with ore from a bed four miles and a half distant, which lies in a valley, through which runs a brook. The brook is turned into a new channel, and the ore-pits are cleared of water by a steam engine, constructed and made at the furnace by, and under the direction of, the late Joseph Brown, Esq. of Providence, which continues a very useful monument of his mechanical genius. At this ore-bed are a variety of ores, curious stones and ochres.

At Johnston, upon Nutaquankinut Hill, and in its vicinity, are several small pits or mines, in most of which is found a compound of a hardened earth, and a soft grey coloured stone, mingled with a proportion of glittering metallick substance, which those who made the pits supposed to be silver ore. This composition is somewhat heavier than simple earth or stone; but no experiments heretofore made, have promised much profit from working it.

At Diamond Hill, in the county of Providence, which is so called from its sparkling and shining appearance, there are a variety of peculiar stones, more curious than useful. Not far from this hill, in the township of Cumberland, is a copper mine, mixed with iron strongly impregnated with load stone, of which some large pieces have been found in the neighbourhood. No method has yet been discovered to work it to advantage.

An abundance of lime-stone is found in this state, particularly in the county of Providence, of which large quantities of lime are made and exported. This lime-stone is of different colours, and is the true marble, of the white, plain and variegated. It takes a fine polish and works equal to any in America.

There are several mineral springs in this state; to one of which, near Providence, many people resort to bathe, and drink the water.

Chief Towns.] Newport and Providence are the two principal towns in this state. Newport lies in latitude 41° 29′, longitude 71° 17′ W. This town was first settled by Mr. William Coddington, afterwards governour, and the father of Rhode-Island, with seventeen others, in 1639. Its harbour which is one of the finest in the world, spreads westward before the town. The entrance is easy and safe, and a large fleet may anchor in it and ride in perfect security. It is probable this may, in some future period, become one of the man-of-war ports of the American Empire. The town lies north and south upon a gradual ascent as you proceed eastward from the water, and exhibits a beautiful view from the harbour, and from the neighbouring hills which lie westward upon the main. West of the town is Goat Island, on which is a fort. Between this island and Rhode-Island is the harbour. Front or Water-street is a mile in length.

Newport contains about 1000 houses, built chiefly of wood. It has 10 houses for publick worship; four for the Baptists, two for Congregationalists, one for Episcopalians, one for Quakers, one for Moravians, and a synagogue for the Jews. The other publick buildings are a state-house, and an edifice for the publick library. The situation, form and architecture of the state-house, give it a pleasing appearance. It stands sufficiently elevated, and a long wharf and paved parade lead up to it from the harbour.

The prohibition of the slave trade, which had been a great source of its wealth, the destructive influence of paper money, combined with the devastation of a cruel war, occasioned a stagnation of business fatal to its prosperity. This city, far famed for the beauty of its situation, the salubrity of its climate, and the hospitality and politeness of its inhabitants, and which was the place of resort for invalids from a great distance, now wears the gloomy aspect of decay. This circumstance, together with that of there being a great abundance of raw materials in the vicinity, strongly mark out this city as a convenient and proper situation for extensive manufactures. Should the gentlemen of fortune turn their capitals into this channel, it is thought that they would not only derive a profit to themselves, but be instrumental in giving employment and bread to thousands of now unhappy people, and of reviving the former importance of their beautiful city.

The excellent accommodations and regulations of the numerous packets which belong to this port, and which ply thence to Providence and New-York, ought not to pass unnoticed. They are said to be superior to any thing of the kind in Europe. The appearance of the islands in Narraganset Bay, and of the circumjacent country, in the spring and summer seasons, either from the land or water, is extremely beautiful and charming.

Providence, situated in latitude 41° 51′, on both sides of Providence river, is 35 miles from the sea, and 30 N. by W. from Newport. It is the oldest town in the state. Roger Williams, and his company, were its first settlers in 1636.

The town is divided into two parts by the river, and connected by the bridge already described. Ships of almost any size sail up and down the channel, which is marked out by stakes, erected at points, shoals and beds lying in the river, so that strangers may come up to the town without a pilot. A ship of 950 tons, for the East-India trade, was lately built in this town and fitted for sea. In 1764, there were belonging to the county of Providence, 54 sail of vessels, containing 4,320 tons. In 1791, they had 129 sail, containing 11,942 tons.

This town suffered much by the Indian war of 1675, when a number of its inhabitants removed to Rhode-Island for shelter. In the late war the case was reversed; many of the inhabitants of that island removed to Providence.

The publick buildings are an elegant meeting-house for Baptists 80 feet square, with a lofty and beautiful steeple, and a large bell, cast at the Furnace Hope, in Scituate; a meeting-house for Friends or Quakers; three for Congregationalists, one of which lately erected, is the most elegant perhaps in the United States; an Episcopal church; a handsome court-house, 70 feet by 40, in which is deposited a library for the use of the inhabitants of the town and country; a work house, a market house 80 feet long and 40 feet wide, and a brick school-house, in which four schools are kept. The college edifice we have already mentioned. The houses in this town are generally built of wood, though there are some brick buildings which are large and elegant. At a convenient distance from the town a hospital for the small-pox and other diseases has been erected. There are two spermaceti works, a number of distilleries, sugar-houses and other manufactories. Several forts were erected in and near Providence during the late war, which, however, are not kept in repair. This town has an extensive trade with Massachusetts, Connecticut and part of Vermont; and from its advantageous situation, promises to be among the largest towns in New-England. It sends four representatives to the General Assembly; the other towns in the county send but two.

Bristol is a pleasant thriving town, about 15 miles north of Newport, on the main. Part of the town was destroyed by the British, but it has since been rebuilt. It has an Episcopal and a Congregational church. This town is noted for raising large quantities of onions and other roots. A number of vessels are owned by the inhabitants, and they carry on a considerable trade to Africa, the West-Indies, and to different parts of the United States.

Warren is a post town of Bristol county, and a port of delivery; pleasantly situated on Warren river, which abounds with a variety of shell and scale fish; and lies at the confluence of the Palmer and Newmeadow rivers, whence it takes the name of Warren river to the Narraganset Bay, being two miles. Four miles north of Bristol, 10 S. E. of Providence. This is a flourishing town, carries on a brisk coasting and foreign trade, and is remarkable for ship-building; the timber in

its vicinity being excellent. The whole township contained 1473 inhabitants in the year 1800; 2700 acres, and 192 dwelling-houses. There is an academy, a social library, four grammar schools, a printing-office, an incorporated company with a fund of 40,000 dollars, for insurance on ships, &c.; and a bank with a capital of 85,000 dollars. Rhode-Island college was first instituted in this town and afterwards removed to Providence. The shipping owned here in the year 1804, consisted of 3 ships, 6 brigs, 4 schooners and 15 sloops, making 2362 tons. There are two bridges erected across the two rivers at the head of the harbour, 30 feet wide and 300 feet long, on the roads leading to Providence and Boston. There are two houses of publick worship here; one a Baptist meeting-house, with a handsome steeple and a bell; the other an Episcopal Methodist meeting-house. The Free Mason's Hall is likewise a decent building. The Warren Association of Baptist churches was first instituted here. This was also the dwelling place of Massasoit, afterwards called Osamequin or Moosamaquin, an Indian sachem, who was the great friend of the Plymouth pilgrims in the infancy of their settlement. His spring near the margin of the river still bears his name. Capt. John Thurber, the person who introduced the seed rice into South-Carolina from the island of Madagascar, on the east coast of Africa, was a native and inhabitant here; his ship being likewise owned here.

Little Compton, called by the Indians *Seconnet*, is said to be the best cultivated township in the state, and affords a greater supply of provisions for market, such as meats of the several kinds, butter, cheese, vegetables, &c. than any other town of its size. The inhabitants, who are an industrious and sober people, and in these respects an example worthy the notice and imitation of their brethren in some other parts of the state, manufacture linen and tow cloth, flannels, &c. of an excellent quality, and in considerable quantities for sale.

East-Greenwich and Warwick are noted for making good cider, and formerly for raising tobacco for exportation.

Indians.] A few years since there were about 500 Indians in this state. The greater part of them reside at Charlestown. They are peaceable and well disposed towards government, and speak the English language.

Curiosities.] About four miles north-east of Providence lies a small village, called Pawtucket, a place of some trade, and famous for lamprey eels. Through this village runs Pawtucket river, which empties into Seekhonck river at this place. In this river is a beautiful fall of water, directly over which a bridge has been built, which divides the Commonwealth of Massachusetts from the state of Rhode-Island. The fall, in its whole length, is upwards of fifty feet. The water passes through several chasms in a rock which runs diametrically across the bed of the stream, and serves as a dam to the water. This is a busy place, and the seat of various branches of manufacture. In the fall of 1796, there were on these falls, three anchor forges, one tanning mill, one flour mill, one slitting mill, one clothier's works, the shearing performed by water, three snuff mills, one oil mill, one cotton manufactory, three fulling mills, two machines for cutting nails. All these are moved by water. There were besides, a

machine for cutting screws, a furnace for casting hollow ware, and various forges.

In the town of Middletown, on Rhode-Island, about two miles from Newport, is a place called Purgatory. It joins to the sea on the east side of the island. It is a large cavity or opening, in a high bed of rocks, about 12 feet in diameter at top; and about 40 feet deep before you reach the water, of which, as it joins the sea, it has always a large depth. The rocks on each side appear to have been once united, and were probably separated by some convulsion in nature.

Constitution.] The constitution of this state is founded on the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663; and the frame of government was not essentially altered by the revolution. The legislature of the state consists of two branches, a senate or upper house, composed of ten members, besides the governour and deputy-governour, called in the charter, assistants, and a house of representatives, composed of deputies from the several towns. The members of the legislature are chosen twice a year; and there are two sessions of this body, annually, viz. on the first Wednesday in May, and the last Wednesday in October.

The supreme executive power is vested in a governour, or in his absence, in the deputy-governour, who, with the assistants, secretary and general treasurer, are chosen annually in May, by the suffrages of the people. The governour presides in the upper house, but has only a single voice in enacting laws.

There is one supreme judicial court, composed of five judges, whose jurisdiction extends over the whole state, and who hold two courts annually in each county.

In each county, there is an inferior court of common pleas and general sessions of the peace, held twice a year for the trial of causes not capital, arising within the county, from which an appeal lies to the supreme court.

Roads.] Within a few years a turnpike road has been made from Providence to Connecticut, through Johnston, Scituate and Coventry, to meet the turnpike roads from Norwich, Hartford and New-Haven. The road, which was very rocky and difficult to pass with carriages, is now rendered tolerably good.

Banks.] There are two banks in Newport, one in Bristol, one in Warren, one in Westerly, one in Gloucester, and three in Providence.

History.] Motives of the same kind with those which are well known to have occasioned the settlement of most of the other United States, gave birth to the settlement of Rhode-Island. The emigrants from England who came to Massachusetts, though they did not perfectly agree in religious sentiments, had been tolerably united by their common zeal against the ceremonies of the church of England. But as soon as they were removed from ecclesiastical courts, and possessed of a charter allowing liberty of conscience, they fell into disputes and contentions among themselves.

Mr. Roger Williams, a puritan minister, came over to New-England in 1631, and settled at Salem, assistant to Mr. Skelton. His settlement was opposed by the magistrates, because he refused to join with

the church at Boston, unless they would make a publick declaration of their repentance for maintaining communion with the church of England, while in their native country. In consequence, Mr. Williams removed to Plymouth, where he remained assistant to Rev. Mr. Smith three years, or as others say, not one, when he disagreed with some influential characters in that town, and by invitation returned to Salem, and succeeded Mr. Skelton, who had lately deceased. His settlement was still opposed by the magistrates, who charged him with various errors, for which, in 1636, he was banished the colony, as a disturber of the church and commonwealth. In the succeeding winter he left his wife and children at Salem, and went to seek a residence without the limits of Massachusetts. Fortunately for Mr. Williams, he had cultivated an acquaintance with the Indians, and learned their language; and before he left the colony, he had privately treated with Canonicus and Osamaquin, two Narraganset Sachems, for a tract of land within their territory, provided he should be under the necessity of settling among them. These circumstances, together with the advice of governour Winthrop, induced him, with four of his friends, after his banishment, to take his course toward Narraganset Bay. He, with his companions, established themselves first at Secunk or Seekhonck, now Rehoboth. But that place being within the bounds of Plymouth colony, governour Winslow, in a friendly manner, advised them to remove to the other side of the river, where the lands were not covered by any patent. Accordingly, in 1636, they crossed Seekhonck river, and landed among the Indians, by whom they were hospitably received, and thus laid the foundation of a town, which, from a sense of God's merciful providence to him, he called Providence. Here the little colony was soon after joined by a number of others, and though they were secured from the Indians by the terror of the English, yet, for a considerable time, they suffered much from fatigue and want; but they enjoyed liberty of conscience, and consoled themselves with the idea of having "provided a refuge for persons destitute for conscience sake."

The unhappy divisions and contentions in Massachusetts still prevailed, and in the year 1636, Gov. Winthrop strove to suppress the opinions which he disapproved. Accordingly a synod was called at Newtown (now Cambridge) on the 30th of August, when eighty erroneous opinions were presented, debated and condemned; and a court holden in October following, at the same place, banished a few leading persons of those accused of these errors, and censured several others; not, it seems, for holding these opinions, but for seditious conduct. The disputes, which occasioned this disturbance, were about the same points as the five questions debated between the synod and Mr. Cotton, which are thus described by Dr. Mather: "They were about the order of things in our union to our Lord Jesus Christ; about the influence of our faith in the application of his righteousness; about the use of our sanctification in evidencing our justification; and about the consideration of our Lord Jesus Christ by men yet under a covenant of works; briefly, they were about the points whereupon depends the grounds of our assurance of blessedness in a better world."

The whole colony of Massachusetts at this time, was in a violent ferment. The election of civil officers was carried by a party spirit, excited by religious dissension. Those who were banished by the court, joined by a number of their friends, went in quest of a new settlement, and came to Providence, where they were kindly entertained by Mr. R. Williams; who, by the assistance of Sir Henry Vane, jun. procured for them, from the Indians, Aquidnick, or Aquaquinuck, now Rhode-Island. Here, in 1638, the people, eighteen in number, formed themselves into a body politick, and chose Mr. Coddington their leader, to be their judge or chief magistrate. This same year the sachems signed the deed or grant of the island. For which Indian gift, it is said, they paid very dearly, by being obliged to make repeated purchases of the same lands from several claimants.

The other parts of the state were purchased of the natives at several successive periods.

In the year 1643, the people being destitute of a patent, or any legal authority, Mr. Williams went to England as agent, and by the assistance of Sir Henry Vane, jun. obtained by the Earl of Warwick (then governour and admiral of all the plantations) and his council, "a free and absolute charter of civil incorporation of Providence Plantations in Narraganset Bay." This lasted until the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663, by which the incorporation was styled, "the English colony of Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations in New-England." This charter, without any essential alteration, has remained the foundation of their government ever since.

Mr. Williams became a Baptist in a few years after his settling at Providence, and was active in forming a church of that persuasion in 1639, but ceased to walk with it the following year. This church, in 1653, disagreed about the rite of laying on of hands, some holding it necessary to church communion, others esteeming it indifferent; upon which the church divided. At Newport, Mr. John Clark and some others formed a church, in 1644, on the principles of the Baptists; which church was afterwards divided like that at Providence.

In 1700, the Friends or Quakers' meeting house was built in Newport. Their yearly meeting till Gov. Coddington's death was held in his house, and he died a member of that body in 1688.

In 1720, there was a Congregational church gathered at Newport, and the Rev. Nathaniel Clap was ordained its pastor. Out of this church another was formed in 1728. The worship of God according to the rites of the church of England was instituted here in 1706, by the society for propagating the gospel in foreign parts. And in 1738, there were seven worshipping assemblies in this town, and a large society of Quakers at Portsmouth, at the other end of the island.

In 1630, the colony was filled with inhabitants; and chiefly by the natural increase of the settlers. The number of souls in the state at this time was 17,935, of which no more than 985 were Indians, and 1648 negroes.

In 1738, there were above 100 sail of vessels belonging to Newport.

The colony of Rhode-Island, from its local situation, has ever been less exposed to the incursions of the neighbouring Indians, and from the French from Canada, than their neighbours in Massachusetts and Connecticut. Many of the colony have, from its first establishment, professed the principles of the Quakers, which forbade them to fight. For these reasons the colony have been very little concerned in the old wars with the French and Indians. In the expedition against Port Royal in 1710, and in the abortive attempt against Canada in 1711, they had some forces. Towards the intended expedition against Canada in 1746, they raised 300 men, and equipped a sloop of war with 100 seamen; but in their voyage to Nova-Scotia, they met with misfortunes and returned. Soon after, the design was dropped.

Through the whole of the late unnatural war with Great-Britain, the inhabitants of this state manifested a patriotick spirit; their troops behaved gallantly, and they are honoured in having produced the second general in the field.*

A valuable sketch of the History of this state was written and published in 1738, by the Rev. Mr. Callender, a Baptist minister, to which the reader is referred. See also the History of New-England, by the author of this work and the Rev. E. Parish.

CONNECTICUT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Greatest length	100	between	41° and 42° 2′ N. latitude.
Greatest breadth	72		1° 45′ and 3° 40′ E. longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by Massachusetts; east by Rhode-Island; south by the sound which divides it from Long-Island; west by the state of New-York.

The divisional line between Connecticut and Massachusetts, as settled in 1713, was found to be about 72 miles in length. The line dividing Connecticut from Rhode-Island, was settled in 1728, and found to be about 45 miles. The sea-coast, from the mouth of Paukatuck river, which forms a part of the eastern boundary of Connecticut, in a direct south-westerly line to the mouth of Byram river, is reckoned at about 90 miles. The line between Connecticut and New-York, runs from latitude 41° to latitude 42° 2′, 72 miles. Connecticut contains about 4,674 square miles; equal to 2,991,360 acres.†

* General Greene.

† Blodget, in his map of Connecticut, makes the north line of this state 95 miles; and the line on the sea-coast, 106 miles; and the contents of the state, 5,400 miles. But this, I apprehend, is too large an estimate.

Civil Divisions.] Connecticut is divided into 8 counties, and about 100 townships. Each township is a corporation, invested with power to hold lands, choose its own town officers, to make prudential laws, the penalty of transgression not to exceed twenty shillings, and to choose its own representatives to the General Assembly. The townships are generally divided into two or more parishes, in each of which is one or more places for publick worship, and school-houses at convenient distances.

The names of the counties, their chief towns and population, in 1790 and 1800 were as follows, viz.

Counties.	No. Towns 1800.	No. Inhab. 1790.	No. Inhab. 1800.	Chief Towns.	No. Inhab. 1800.	No. Slaves 1800.
Hartford	15	38,029	42,147	Hartford	5,347	67
New-Haven	14	30,830	32,162	New-Haven	5,157	236
New-London	11	33,200	34,888	New-London	5,150	209
				Norwich	3,475	
Fairfield	14	36,250	38,208	Fairfield	3,735	275
				Danbury	3,180	
Windham	14	28,921	28,222	Windham	2,354	35
Litchfield	23	38,755	41,214	Litchfield	4,215	47
Middlesex	7	18,855	19,874	Middletown	5,001	72
				Haddam	2,317	
Tolland	9	13,106	14,319	Tolland	1,638	9
Total 8	107	237,946	251,002			951

Rivers.] The principal rivers in this state are Connecticut, Housatonick or Hooestennuck, the Thames, and their branches. Under the heads of New-Hampshire and Massachusetts, we have already described Connecticut river, till it enters this state. Soon after it enters the bounds of Connecticut, it passes over Enfield Falls, to render which navigable for boats a company has been constituted, and a sum of money raised by lottery. At Windsor it receives Windsor Ferry river, from the west, which is formed by the junction of Farmington and Poquabock rivers. At Hartford it meets the tide, and thence runs in a crooked channel, into Long-Island Sound. It is from 80 to 100 rods wide, 130 miles from its mouth.

At its mouth is a bar of sand which considerably obstructs the navigation. Ten feet water at full tides is found on this bar, and the same depth to Middletown. The distance of the bar from this place as the river runs, is 36 miles. Above Middletown are several shoals which stretch quite across the river. Only six feet water is found on the shoal at high tide, and here the tide ebbs and flows but about eight inches. About three miles below Middletown, the river is contracted to about 40 rods in breadth, by two high mountains. Almost every where else the banks are low, and spread into fine, extensive meadows. In the spring floods, which generally happen in May, these meadows are covered with water. At Hartford the water sometimes rises 20 feet above the common surface of the river, and, having all to pass through the above mentioned strait, or *narrows* it is sometimes two or three weeks before it returns to its usual bed.

These floods add nothing to the depth of water on the bar at the mouth of the river; this bar lying too far off in the sound to be affected by them.

On this beautiful river, whose banks are settled almost to its source, are many pleasant, neat, well built towns. On its western bank, from its mouth northward, are the towns of Saybrook, Haddam, Middletown, Weathersfield, Hartford, Windsor and Suffield. On its eastern bank, as you ascend the river, are Lyme, East-Haddam, Glastenbury, East-Hartford, East-Windsor and Enfield.

This river is navigable to Hartford, upwards of 50 miles from its mouth, and the produce of the country for 200 miles above is brought thither in boats.

Sturgeon, salmon and shad, are caught in plenty, in their season, from the mouth of the river upwards, excepting sturgeon, which do not ascend the upper falls; besides a variety of small fish, such as pike, carp, perch, &c.

From this river were employed in 1789, three brigs of 180 tons each, in the European trade; and about 60 sail, from 60 to 150 tons, in the West-India trade; besides a few fishermen, and 40 or 50 coasting vessels. The trade and navigation of Hartford have increased since.

One branch of the Hooestennuck* rises in Lanesborough, the other in Windsor, both in Berkshire county in Massachusetts. It passes through a number of pleasant towns, and empties into the sound between Stratford and Milford. It is navigable 12 miles to Derby. A bar of shells at its mouth, obstructs its navigation for large vessels. In this river, between Salisbury and Canaan, is a cataract, where the water of the whole river, which is 75 yards wide, falls about 60 feet perpendicular, in a perfect, white sheet, exhibiting a scene exceedingly grand and beautiful. This is the most majestick cataract in New-England, and when the river is full is superior to the Cohoez.

Naugatuk is a small river which rises in Torrington, and empties into the Housatonick at Derby.

The Thames empties into Long-Island Sound at New-London. It is navigable 14 miles, to Norwich Landing. Here it loses its name, and branches into Shetucket on the east, and Norwich or Little river on the west. The city of Norwich stands on the tongue of land between these rivers. Little river, about a mile from its mouth, has a remarkable and very romantick cataract. A rock 10 or 12 feet in perpendicular height, extends quite across the channel of the river. Over this the whole river pitches in one entire sheet upon a bed of rocks below. Here the river is compressed into a very narrow channel between two craggy cliffs, one of which towers to a considerable height. The channel descends gradually, is very crooked, and covered with pointed rocks. Upon these the water swiftly tumbles, foaming with the most violent agitation, 15 or 20 rods, into a broad bason which spreads before it. At the bottom of the perpendicular falls, the rocks are curiously excavated by the constant pouring of the water. Some of the cavities, which are of a circular form, are five

* An Indian name, signifying *over the mountain*.

or six feet deep. The smoothness of the water above its descent—the regularity and beauty of the perpendicular fall—the tremendous roughness of the other, and the craggy, towering cliff which impends over the whole, present to the view of the spectator a scene indescribably delightful and majestick. On this river are some of the finest mill-seats in New-England, and those immediately below the falls, occupied by Lathrop's mills, are perhaps not exceeded by any in the world. Across the mouth of this river is a broad, commodious bridge, in the form of a wharf, built at a great expense.

Shetucket river, the other branch of the Thames, four miles from its mouth, receives Quinnabaug, (signifying a deep, still river,) which has its source in Brimfield pond, in Massachusetts; thence passing through Sturbridge and Dudley, in Massachusetts, it crosses into Connecticut, passes through Thompson, and then divides Pomfret from Killingly, Canterbury from Plainfield, and Lisbon from Preston, and mingles with the Shetucket. In passing through this hilly country, it tumbles over several falls, (two of which, one in Thompson, the other in Brooklyn, are 30 feet each) and affords a number of fine mill-seats. In its course it receives a number of tributary streams, the principal of which are Muddy Brook, from Woodstock, Five Mile River in Killingly, and Moosop River, in Plainfield.

Shetucket river is formed by the junction of Willamantick and Mount Hope rivers, which unite between Windham and Lebanon. In Lisbon it receives Little river; and at a little distance farther the Quinnabaug, and empties as above.

These rivers are fed by numberless brooks from every part of the country. At the mouth of Shetucket, is a bridge of timber 124 feet in length, supported at each end by pillars, and held up in the middle by braces on the top, in the nature of an arch.

Paukatuck river, is an inconsiderable stream, a branch of which heads in Stonington, and empties into Stonington harbour. It forms part of the dividing line between Connecticut and Rhode-Island.

Quinnipiack or Wallingford river, rises in Southington, not far from a bend in Farmington river, and, passing through Wallingford and North-Haven, falls into New-Haven harbour. It has been meditated to connect the source of this river with Farmington river.

East and West rivers are inconsiderable streams, bounding the city of New-Haven on the east and west.

West of the Housatonick are a number of small rivers which fall into the Sound. Among these is Byram river, noticeable only as forming a part of the boundary between New-York and Connecticut. But neither this, nor any of the others, are considerable enough to merit particular descriptions.

Harbours.] The two principal harbours are at New-London and New-Haven. The former opens to the south. From the light-house, which stands at the mouth of the harbour, to the town, is about three miles; the breadth is three quarters of a mile, and in some places more. The harbour has from five to six fathoms of water, a clear bottom, tough ooze, and as far as one mile above the town is entirely secure, and commodious for large ships.

New-Haven harbour is greatly inferior to that of New-London. It is a bay which sets up northerly from the sound, about four miles. Its entrance is about half a mile wide. It has very good anchorage, and two and a half fathoms at low water, and three fathoms and four feet at common tides.

About a mile from the town, on the channel, a pier is erected, at which vessels of such size as cannot come up to the wharf, lade and unlade. A sum of money has lately been raised by lottery for the purpose of extending the long wharf to this pier, and the work is partly accomplished. When completed, this wharf will be the longest in the United States, and will be a vast benefit to the town.

The whole of the sea-coast is indented with harbours, many of which are safe and commodious, particularly Black Rock harbour, in Fairfield, and Newfield harbour in Stratford.

Bridges.] On the great road from New-London to New-York, are the three most considerable bridges in the state; one at Rope Ferry, near New-London; one connecting East-Haven with New-Haven; the other at Newfield, in the town of Stratford. A bridge is building over Connecticut river at Springfield.

Climate, Soil and Productions.] Connecticut, though subject to the extremes of heat and cold in their seasons, and to frequent sudden changes, is very healthful. The north-west winds, in the winter season, are often extremely severe and piercing, occasioned by the great body of snow which lies concealed from the dissolving influence of the sun, in the immense forests north and north-west. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the severity of the weather, and is favourable to health and longevity. Connecticut is generally broken land, made up of mountains, hills and vallies; and is exceedingly well watered. Some small parts of it are thin and barren. It lies in the fifth and sixth northern climates, and has a strong fertile soil. Its principal productions are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts of the state, oats and barley, which are heavy and good; and of late, buck-wheat, flax in large quantities, some hemp, potatoes of several kinds, pumpkins, turnips, peas, beans, &c. &c. Fruits of all kinds, which are common to the climate. Their numerous orchards produce excellent apples. Large quantities of cider are made for exportation. Excellent grapes of different species are found in the swamps and low lands. They have peaches, plums, cherries, &c. in great plenty. The soil is very well calculated for pasture and mowing, which enables the farmers to feed large numbers of neat cattle and horses. Actual calculation has evinced, that any given quantity of the best mowing land in Connecticut, produces about twice as much clear profit, as the same quantity of the best wheat land in the state of New-York. Many farmers, in the eastern part of the state, have found their advantage in raising mules, which are carried from the ports of Norwich and New-London, to the West-India islands, and yield a handsome profit. This business is falling into disuse as the mules from the Spanish Main are found to be more valuable. The beef, pork, butter and cheese of Connecticut are equal to any in the world.

Trade.] The trade of Connecticut is principally with the West-India islands, and is carried on in vessels from sixty to a hundred and forty tons. The exports consist of horses, mules, oxen, oak staves, hoops, pine boards, oak plank, beams, Indian corn, fish, beef, pork, &c. Horses, live cattle and lumber, are permitted in the Dutch, Danish and French ports.

Connecticut has a large number of coasting vessels employed in carrying the produce of the state to other states. To Rhode-Island, Massachusetts and New-Hampshire, they carry pork, wheat, corn and rye. To North and South-Carolinas and Georgia, butter, cheese, salted beef, cider, apples, potatoes, hay, &c. and receive in return, rice, indigo and money. But as New-York is nearer, and the state of the markets always well known, much of the produce of Connecticut, especially of the western parts, is carried there; particularly pot and pearl ashes, flax-seed, beef, pork, cheese and butter, in large quantities. Most of the produce of Connecticut river, from the parts of Massachusetts, New-Hampshire and Vermont, as well as of Connecticut, which are adjacent, goes to the same market. Considerable quantities of the produce of the eastern parts of the state, are marketed at Boston, Providence and Norwich.

The value of the whole exported produce and commodities from this state, before the year 1774, was then estimated at about £200,000 lawful money, annually. In the year ending September 30, 1791, the amount of foreign exports from this state was 710,340 dollars, besides articles carried to different parts of the United States, to a great amount. In the year ending September 30, 1793, the value of exports from this state was 770,239 dollars, and in 1804, 1,516,110 dollars. This state owned and employed in 1800, in the foreign and coasting trade, 32,867 tons of shipping.

Manufactures.] The farmers in Connecticut, and their families, are mostly clothed in plain, decent, homespun cloth. Their linens and woollens are manufactured in the family way; and although they are generally of a coarser kind, they are of a stronger texture, and much more durable than those imported from France and Great-Britain. Many of their cloths are fine and handsome. Very considerable attention has been paid in this state, to the culture of silk. To this purpose silk-worms have been reared, and large orchards of mulberry trees have been planted, and the success of these attempts has been such as to promise not only a supply of this valuable article for the inhabitants, but a surplusage for exportation.

A woollen manufactory has been established at Hartford. The legislature of the state has encouraged it, but it is now on the decline. Mr. Chittenden of New-Haven, about the year 1784, invented a useful machine for bending and cutting card-teeth. This machine is put in motion by a manderil twelve inches in length, and one inch in diameter. Connected with the manderil are six parts of the machine, independent of each other; the first introduces a certain length of wire into the chops of the *corone;* the second shuts the chops and holds fast the wire in the middle until it is finished; the third cuts off the wire; the fourth doubles the tooth in proper form; the fifth makes the last bend; and the sixth delivers the finished tooth from

the machine. The manderil is moved by a band wheel, five feet in diameter, turned by a crank. One revolution of the manderil makes one tooth; ten are made in a second, and 36,000 in an hour. With one machine like this, teeth enough might be made to fill cards sufficient for all the card manufactories in New-England. In New-Haven are linen and button manufactories; and a cotton manufactory, lately established on a large scale. In East-Hartford are glass works, a snuff and powder mill, and iron-works, and a slitting mill. Iron-works are established also at Salisbury, Norwich and other parts of the state. At Stafford is a furnace at which are made large quantities of hollow ware, and other ironmongery, sufficient to supply the whole state. Paper is manufactured at Norwich, Hartford, New-Haven, and in Litchfield county, and in various other places. Nails, of every size, are made in almost every town and village in Connecticut; so that considerable quantities can be exported to the neighbouring states, and at a better rate than they can be had from Europe. Ironmongery, hats, candles, leather, shoes and boots, are manufactured in this state. Oil mills, of a new and very ingenious construction, have been erected in several parts of the state.

Population and Character.] Connecticut is the most populous, in proportion to its extent, of any of the United States. The whole number of souls, according to the last census, may be seen in the table of divisions. It is laid out in small farms from 50 to 3 or 400 acres each, which are held by the farmers in fee simple, and are generally cultivated as well as the soil will admit. The state is chequered with innumerable roads or highways crossing each other in every direction. A traveller, in any of these roads, even in the most unsettled parts of the state, will seldom pass more than a mile without finding a house and a farm under such improvements as to afford the necessaries for the support of a family. The whole state resembles a well cultivated garden, which with that degree of industry that is necessary to happiness, produces the necessaries and conveniences of life in great plenty.

In 1756, the number of inhabitants in Connecticut was 130,611. In 1774, there were 197,856 souls. In 18 years the increase was 67,245. From 1774 to 1782, the increase was but 11,294 persons. This comparatively small increase of inhabitants may be satisfactorily accounted for from the destruction of the war, and the numerous emigrations to Vermont, the western parts of New-Hampshire, New-York and the other states.

The inhabitants are almost entirely of English descent. There are no Dutch, French or Germans, and very few Scotch or Irish people, in any part of the state.

In addition to what has been already said under the head of *New-England*, it may be observed, that party spirit, which is the bane of political happiness, has not raged with such violence in Connecticut, as in other states. Publick proceedings have been conducted, generally, with much calmness and candour. The people are well informed in regard to their rights, and judicious in the methods they adopt to secure them. The state enjoys a greater share of political tranquillity, than any perhaps in the union, and a large majority of its inhabitants are firm supporters of good government.

The clergy, who are numerous, able, harmonious and very respectable, as a body, have hitherto preserved a kind of aristocratical balance in the very democratical government of the state: This has happily operated as a check upon the overbearing spirit of democracy. Great strictness is observed in the admission of candidates to the ministry. The influence of the clergy is on the increase. This, no doubt, is owing to the reformation of morals among the people since the peace; but more especially, to the advancement of religion in the general seriousness, which, of late, has been so evident in a great part of the state.

Religion.] Such as is happily adapted to a republican government. As to the mode of exercising church government and discipline, it might not improperly be called a republican religion. Each church has a separate jurisdiction, and claims authority to choose its own minister, to exercise judgment, and to enjoy gospel ordinances within itself. The churches, however, (amounting to about 200, of the Congregational denomination, in which are upwards of 20,000 communicants and 170 pastors) are not independent of each other; they are generally consociated for mutual benefit and convenience. The associations have power to license candidates for the ministry, to consult for the general welfare, and to recommend measures to be adopted by the churches, but have no authority to enforce them. When disputes arise in churches, councils are sometimes called by the parties, to settle them, whose power is only advisory; but the Consociation is the usual tribunal to which disputes are commonly referred. There are 12 associations in the state, and they meet twice in a year. These are all combined in one general association, formed in 1709, consisting of delegates from the several associations, who meet annually. Liberty of conscience, in its full extent, is enjoyed in Connecticut.

The great body of the people of this state are Congregationalists. Besides these, there are Episcopalians and Baptists; formerly there was a society of Sandemanians at New-Haven; and there is a small society of this denomination at Danbury. The Episcopalian churches are respectable, and are under the superintendance of a bishop.

Damages sustained in the late War.] After the establishment of the peace in 1783, a number of gentlemen were appointed by the General Assembly to estimate the damages done by the British troops, in the several towns which they ravaged. The following is the result of their enquiries:

	Amount of Losses.
New-London, (burnt by Benedict Arnold, September 6, 1781)	£145,788 15 6
Groton, do. do.	23,217 6 0
Scattering towns, do. do.	9,806 9 2
	£178,812 10 8
Norwalk, (burnt by the British, 1779)	£34,867 9 2
—— confiscated property and other losses,	2,077 0 0
	£36,944 9 2

Greenwich,	£6,365	11	8
—— Losses of men who gave in their account not on oath,	369	17	7
	£6,735	9	3
Fairfield, (burnt 1779)	£40,809	2	10
New-Haven ravaged by Gov. Tryon, July, 1779,	£24,893	7	6
East-Haven, do. do.	4,882	16	4
West-Haven, do. do.	474	0	3
——— Other losses not before computed,	586	0	1
	30,836	4	2
Amount of the losses in the whole state, in money, valued as in 1774,	£294,137	16	1

The foregoing estimate includes merchandise and publick buildings. Exclusive of these, the losses are estimated at 167,000l. To compensate the sufferers, the General Court, in May, 1792, granted them 500,000 acres of the western part of the reserved lands of Connecticut, which lie west of Pennsylvania, south of the west end of Lake Erie.

Chief Towns.] There are a great number of very pleasant towns, both maritime and inland, in Connecticut. It contains five cities, incorporated with extensive jurisdiction in civil causes. Two of these, Hartford and New-Haven, are capitals of the state. The General Assembly is holden at the former in May, and at the latter in October, annually.

Hartford (city) is situated at the head of ship navigation, on the west side of Connecticut river, about fifty miles west of north from its entrance into the Sound. Its publick buildings are a very handsome state-house, two churches for Congregationalists, and one for Episcopalians, and between four and five hundred dwelling-houses, a number of which are handsomely built of brick. This city contained in 1800, 5347 inhabitants. A bill of mortality, for ten years successively, exhibits one death only for 65 of the whole number of inhabitants.

The town is divided by a small river, with high romantick banks. Over this river is a bridge connecting the two divisions of the town. Hartford is advantageously situated for trade. A tract of country above Hartford, along Connecticut River, 206 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, and in area 8240 square miles, will probably throw its commerce, within a few years, into the city of Hartford; which is now a rich, flourishing, commercial place. A bank has lately been established in this city, whose capital is 100,000 dollars, divided into 250 shares.

New-Haven (city) lies round the head of a bay, which makes up about four miles north from the sound. It covers part of a large plain, which is circumscribed on three sides by high hills or mountains. Two small rivers bound the city east and west. The town was originally laid out in squares of 51 rods. Many of these squares have

been divided by cross streets. Four streets run north-west and south-east, these are crossed by 4 others at right angles. Near the centre of the city is the publick square, on and around which are the publick buildings, viz. the state house, five handsome college edifices, three of which are devoted to the students, the other two to the purposes of publick worship, the library, museum, philosophical apparatus, and lecture rooms for the several professors. Besides these are three churches for Congregationalists and one for Episcopalians. The college edifices, chapel, state house, and one of the churches are of brick. The publick square is encircled with a row of trees, which render it both convenient and delightful.

A new burial ground has been laid out in the skirt of the city, on an improved plan. It is an ornament to the city.

Many of the streets are ornamented with two rows of trees, one on each side, which give the city a rural appearance. The prospect from the steeples is greatly variegated and extremely beautiful. There are above 600 dwelling-houses in the city, principally of wood, and well built, and some of them elegant. The streets are sandy, but neat and cleanly. In 1800, New-Haven contained 5167 inhabitants. About one in seventy die annually; this proves the healthfulness of its climate. Indeed as to pleasantness of situation and salubrity of air, New-Haven is hardly exceeded by any city in America. It carries on a considerable trade with New-York and the West-India islands, and several kinds of manufactures, and is flourishing.

The exports in 1794 amounted to 171,868 dollars. In this town is Yale-College, one of the most flourishing literary institutions in the United States.

New-London (city) stands on the west side of the river Thames, near its entrance into the sound, in lat. 41° 25′. It has two places for publick worship, one for Congregationalists and one for Episcopalians, and in 1800 had 5150 inhabitants. Its harbour is the best in Connecticut. It is defended by fort Trumbull and fort Griswold, the one in New-London the other in Groton. A considerable part of the town was burnt by the infamous Benedict Arnold in 1781. It has since been rebuilt.

Norwich (city) stands at the head of Thames river, 14 miles north from New-London. It is a commercial city, at the head of navigation, and has a rich and extensive back country. Its situation upon a river which affords a great number of convenient seats for mills and water machines of all kinds, renders it very eligible in a manufactural view. The inhabitants improve the advantages which nature has so liberally given them. They manufacture paper of all kinds, stockings, clocks and watches, chaises, buttons, stone and earthen ware, wire, oil, chocolate, bells, anchors, and all kinds of forge work. The city contains a court-house, two churches for Congregationalists, and one for Episcopalians, and 3476 inhabitants. The city is in three detached, compact divisions; viz. Chelsea, at the landing, the Town, and Bean Hill; in the latter division is an academy; and in the town is a school supported by a donation from Dr. Daniel Lathrop, deceased. The courts of law are held alternately at New-London and Norwich.

Middletown (city) is pleasantly situated on the western bank of Connecticut river, fifteen miles south of Hartford. It is the principal town in Middlesex county—has about 400 houses, a court-house, one church for Congregationalists, one for Episcopalians, a naval office, and carries on a considerable trade. In 1800, this city contained 5000 inhabitants. On the east side of the river half a mile above the city, in the town of Chatham, is an inexhaustible quarry of what is denominated *Connecticut Stone*, used in building. In this neighbourhood coal mines have lately been discovered.

Weathersfield, four miles south of Hartford, is a very pleasant town of between two and three hundred houses, situated on a fine soil, with an elegant brick church for Congregationalists. This town is noted for raising onions.

Litchfield is a very pleasant town, the principal one in the county of that name. It stands on very elevated ground and commands a fine prospect of the surrounding country. It had in 1800, 4285 inhabitants. Morris Academy was established in this town in 1803, for the instruction of youth of both sexes in the higher branches of learning. This is a flourishing institution.

Windsor, Farmington, Sharon, Danbury, Fairfield, Stratford, Killingworth, Milford, Stamford, Windham, Suffield and Enfield, are all considerable and very pleasant towns, as are many others in different parts of the state.

Turnpike Roads.] The first essays in this state, towards this kind of improvement in roads, was made about the year 1791 or 1792, on the road leading from Norwich to New-London, a distance of about 14 miles. This road was considered as among the worst in the state, being almost impassable with carriages.

When turnpike roads were first established in England, about 50 years since, the innovation occasioned great disturbances, and some riots. Though matters did not proceed to these lengths here, yet the plan when first proposed, and in its operation, met with violent opposition from the neighbouring farmers and others. These same farmers and opposers are now, however, among the first to applaud the undertakers, and their improvements; for they now find that *two* oxen will convey to market, what was formerly a heavy load for *four*; and the saving in time and wear and tear of carriages, independent of the greater safety and convenience of travelling, and the rise of property, in consequence of a good road running by their doors, is far more valuable to them than the trifling toll to which they are subjected.

An issue of this experiment, so pleasing and so unexpected, did not fail to produce its effect throughout the state. The General Assembly has been crowded with petitions, for liberty to establish turnpike roads. A number have been granted, and turnpikes are now completed, or in forwardness, from Norwich, eastward through Plainfield, to Providence; from Norwich, through Lebanon, Colchester, &c. to Hartford; from Hartford, through Coventry, Mansfield, Pomfret, to Massachusets line; and is thence to be extended, through Dedham, to Boston; from Hartford, through Berlin and Wallingford, to New-Haven; from New-Haven, northward, to Litchfield; and

from Litchfield, eastward, to Hartford ; besides several others. These improvements are evidence of the flourishing circumstances, and enterprising spirit of the inhabitants.

Turnpike roads, next to canals, may be reckoned among the greatest of all inland improvements. No tax can operate with more justice and equality than that of turnpikes ; since all who are benefited by them, strangers as well as others, must contribute towards their support. The neighbouring farmers, who now very unequally bear the expense of making and keeping in repair, the roads in their vicinity, would be freed, in a great measure, from so heavy a burden. Since improvements of this kind have so successfully commenced in Connecticut and Pennsylvania, we cannot but with pleasure anticipate the spread of this kind of enterprise in the other states ; and that shortly the United States, will be as celebrated for the excellency of their roads, as they are for their improvements in bridges, canals, and the arts and siences.

Colleges, Academies and Schools.] In no part of the world is the education of all ranks of people more attended to than in Connecticut. The following historical facts on this subject were collected from the records of the state, by the present Comptroller* and obligingly forwarded to the author.

"The Legislature of Connecticut paid early attention to the establishment of schools of education and to making liberal provision for their support, and the same enlightened policy has ever since actuated the legislative councils of this state. Prior to the year 1677 it appears that Latin schools were required to be kept in every county town ; and in this year a fine of 10l. was imposed in cases of neglect to be paid to the next town in the county that would engage to keep such a school in it. The charge of keeping these, as well as town or other schools, was at this time borne by way of rate.

In 1689, two free schools were ordered to be kept for teaching reading, writing and arithmetick, and the Latin and Greek tongues, one at Hartford and the other at New-Haven, the master to receive 60l. annually, 30l. whereof to be paid out of the county treasury.

In 1672, six hundred acres of land were granted to the town of Fairfield for maintenance of a grammar school to be kept there ; and a similar grant was made to the towns of Hartford and New-London for the same purpose.

The ingenious and politick measure for encouraging schools, which has been much extolled in print, was adopted by the Legislature in their act passed in the year 1700. This act requires four grammar schools to be constantly kept at the four county towns in the colony ;—and in all other towns consisting of 70 families and upwards, that there be kept through the year annually, a publick and sufficient school for teaching children to write and read, and that in all towns of any number of families under 70 there be kept such a school yearly for one half the year, and that for the maintenance of such schools there be paid yearly from the colony rates as they come into the treasury, unto the several towns, forty shillings upon every 1000l. of their lists in the general lists of persons and estates, and proportionably for lesser sums.

* John Porter, Esq.

This provision, with some variations and temporary suspensions in seasons of an extraordinary pressure of publick burthens, has continued from that time until the pressent day.

In 1733, further provision was made for the management of schools by the general court, who then granted for this purpose, seven townships laid out in the western lands so called, (in the county of Litchfield) to be divided among the towns and parishes in proportion to their lists, to be let out, and the interest improved for the support of the respective schools.

In 1766, the general assembly granted for the use of schools, the arrears still due on account of an excise which had been laid a number of years before; also the interest at 5 per cent. on the amount of the excise money which had been paid into the treasury. They afterwards ordered to be refunded to the several towns the principal of this excise by them respectively paid into the publick treasury, to be applied for the use of schools within the same.

But the most liberal provision of all for the encouragement of schools, and which perhaps is without a parallel in any country, is the grant which was made by act of the legislature of this state in the year 1795, establishing as a perpetual fund for the support of schools, the whole avails of their western reserve lands, which amounted to to the sum of 1,200,000 dollars. This capital lies in bonds collaterally secured, the interest payable annually and dividends thereof are made up semi-annually and paid to the several school societies."

There is a grammar school at Hartford, and another at New-Haven supported by a donation of governour Hopkins. This venerable and benevolent gentleman, in his last will, dated 1657, left, in the hands of Theophilus Eaton, Esq. and three others, a legacy of £1324, "as an encouragement, in these foreign plantations, of breeding up hopeful youths both at the grammar school and college." In 1664 this legacy was equally divided between New-Haven and Hartford; and grammar schools were erected, which have been supported ever since. An Episcopal Academy has lately been established at Cheshire on a liberal plan. At Canterbury is a respectable grammar school; at Plainfield is a flourishing academy of about 80 students. Academies are established also at Greenfield, Norwich, Windham, Woodstock and Colchester.

Yale College was founded in 1700, and remained at Killingworth until 1707—then at Saybrook, until 1716, when it was removed and fixed at New-Haven. Among its principal benefactors was governour Yale, in honour of whom, in 1718, it was named Yale College. Its first building was erected in 1717, being 170 feet in length, and 22 in breadth, built of wood. This was taken down in 1782. There are at present eight college *domiciles*, three of which, each 100 feet long and 40 wide, are college edifices for the habitation of the students, containing 32 chambers each, 96 in the whole, sufficient for lodging 180 students—a chapel 40 by 50 feet, with a steeple 150 feet high—the Connecticut Lyceum, about the size of the chapel, in which are the library, philosophical and chymical apparatus, museum, and chambers and lecture rooms for the professors—a dining hall 60 by

40 feet—a house for the president, and another for the professor of divinity.

In 1701, the Collegiate School (Yale College) was incorporated by the legislature, and a grant of £120 annually, made towards its support, until the General Court should order otherwise. This allowance was continued until the year 1717. In 1715 there was granted the sum of 500l. to the trustees of said school for the purpose of building a Collegiate House, to be paid out of the avails of country lands ordered to be sold. In 1719 another grant was made to said college of so much of the country lands as should amount to the sum of 300l. Various other grants were also made by the colony from time to time, in favour of this institution.

The first charter of incorporation was granted to eleven ministers under the denomination of trustees. The powers of the trustees were enlarged by the additional charter, 1723. And by that of 1745, the trustees were incorporated by the name of "The President and Fellows of Yale College, New-Haven." By an act of the General Assembly "for enlarging the powers and increasing the funds of Yale College," passed in May, 1792, and accepted by the corporation, the governour, lieutenant-governour, and the six senior assistants in the council of the state, for the time being, are ever hereafter, by virtue of their offices, to be trustees and fellows of the college, in addition to the former corporation.

In 1792, the Legislature taking into consideration the situation of Yale College, and the embarrasment this institution laboured under from the scantiness of its funds, made a grant to that corporation of all arrearages of debts and taxes due to the state, payable in publick securities. The avails which accrued to the college under this grant were equivalent to about 54,000 dollars in Funded Debt of the United States.

The corporation are empowered to hold estates, continue their succession, make academick laws, elect and constitute all officers of instruction and government usual in universities, and confer all the learned degrees. The immediate executive government is in the hands of the president, professors and tutors. The present officers and instructors of the college are, a president, a professor of divinity, and a professor of natural philosophy and astronomy, and three tutors. The number of students on an average is about 150, divided into four classes. In November, 1801, there were 224 in the four classes. The number since has been rather increased than diminished. It is worthy of remark, that as many as five sixths of those who have received their education at this university have been natives of Conecticut. Lately, however, students from other states have much increased.

The funds of the college, before the liberal addition made to them by the grant of the General Assembly in 1792, consisted of rents of lands to the amount of 2,700 dollars a year, about 1,800 dols. raised by tuition money upon the students, besides funds for the support of two professorships.

The three learned languages, together with the liberal arts and sciences, in their several branches, and a general course of universal literature, are taught in this college.

In May and September, annually, the several classes are critically examined in all their classical studies. As incentives to improvement in composition and oratory, quarterly exercises are appointed by the president and tutors, to be exhibited by the respective classes in rotation. A publick commencement is held annually, on the second Wednesday in September, which calls together a more numerous and brilliant assembly, than is convened by any other anniversary in the state.

From the year 1700, to 1793, there had been educated and graduated at this university, about 2303; nearly 800 of whom have been ordained to the work of the gospel ministry.*

Minerals and Fossils.] On the bank of Connecticut river, two miles from Middletown, is a lead mine, which was wrought during the war at the expense of the state, and was productive. It is too expensive to work in time of peace. Copper mines have been discovered and opened in several parts of the state, but have proved unprofitable, and are much neglected. Iron ore abounds in many parts of the state. At Canaan, Colebrook, Salisbury and Stafford, are iron works. Talcs of various kinds, white, brown and chocolate coloured crystals, zinc or spelter, a semi-metal, and several other fossils and metals have been found in Connecticut.

Mode of levying Taxes.] All freeholders in the state are required by law, to give in lists of their polls and rateable estate,† to persons appointed in their respective towns to receive them, on or before the 20th of August, annually. These are valued according to law, arranged in proper order, and sent to the General Assembly annually in May.

The sum total of the list of the polls and rateable estate of the inhabitants of Connecticut, as brought into the General Assembly in May, 1787, was as follows:

Sum total of the single list	£1,484,901	6	4¼
Assessments	47,790	2	9
One quarter of the four-folds	1,176	9	4
Total	£1,533,867	18	5¼

On this sum taxes were levied, so much on the pound, according to the sum proposed to be raised. A tax of two pence on a pound would raise 12,782l. 4s. Taxes are now levied so much on the *dollar*.

The ordinary annual expenses of the government, before the war, amounted to near 4,000l. sterling exclusive of that which was appropriated to the support of schools. The expenses have since increased.

* Accessus. A. D.	Presidents.	Exitus. A. D.
1701.	Rev. Abraham Pierson,	1707.
1719.	Rev. Timothy Cutler, S. T. D.	1722.
1727.	Rev. Elisha Williams,	1739.
1739.	Rev. Thomas Clap,	1766.
1777.	Rev. Ezra Stiles, S. T. D. L. L. D.	1795.
1795.	Rev. Timothy Dwight, D. D.	

† In Connecticut, horses, horned cattle, cultivated and uncultivated land, houses, shipping, all sorts of riding carriages, clocks and watches, silver plate and money at interest, are rateable estate. All males between 16 and 70 years of age, unless exempted by law, are subjects of taxation.

Mineral Springs.] In Litchfield, a valuable mineral spring has lately been discovered.

Some valuable medicinal springs have lately come into repute in Suffield, which have been much frequented, and, in a variety of instances, with advantage. These springs, four in number, in different parts of the town, are strongly impregnated with sulphur, and the waters when drank, operate on some as emetick, on others as cathartick, and on all as diuretick. They have either wholly cured or greatly relieved the following diseases, viz. the gravel, the salt-rheum, the hooping-cough and the head-ach.

At Stafford, in the county of Tolland, is a mineral spring, which has obtained a very considerable share of celebrity. It is situated at the foot of a lofty hill, near the western branch of the Willamantick, and about 25 rods from the confluence of the several streams which form that river. This spring was known and used for medicinal purposes by the Indian natives. When setting out on their hunting parties, from the southward, they for many years after the settlement of the town, used to resort to the spring, to erect wigwams in the neighbourhood, and to drink of and bathe in the water. It was not till the years 1766 and 1767, that the waters began to be considerably used by the English. For a number of years the spring was frequented by large numbers from various parts of the country. The resort to it has continued every year to the present time, and for two or three years past has been greatly increasing. The mineral water of Stafford is very strongly chalybeate. It is undoubtedly more highly impregnated with iron than any other water, which has yet been discovered in this country. The carbonick acid is, in this water, the solvent of the iron. The water has also been found to contain a small portion of the sulphurated hydrogen gas. The sirup of violets and other purple vegetable juices instantly strike the water a beautiful green. Powder of the galls of Aleppo, of Peruvian and white-oak bark, and hyson tea, on being mixed with it, almost immediately produce a very brilliant purple tinge. Caustick fixed alkali throws down a precipitate of a reddish brown colour. Silver, on being wet with the water, acquires a blackish hue. Prussiates of lime and potash produce in it a very discernible blue tinge. Two gallons of the water afforded by evaporation twelve grains of sediment. The temperature of the water by Fahrenheit's thermometer, is from 50 to 52 degrees. This is nearly the same in every season of the year. It never freezes at the fountain, in the coldest weather. Its taste, when first taken from the spring, is lively and somewhat pungent, and its appearance perfectly transparent. Being removed a few hours it grows turbid and mawkish to the taste. When the water has been suffered to stand a considerable time in the bathing vats, the whole surface is covered with a shining pellicle, exhibiting the various colours of the rainbow, and a very copious sediment of a reddish brown colour, and apparently of the ferruginous kind, is deposited at the bottom and adheres to the sides of the vats. This phenomenon undoubtedly arises from the extrication of the carbonick acid by which the iron contained in the water is held in solution.

The effects of the water when used as a remedy, are various. To almost all it proves diuretick. It sometimes operates as a cathartick, frequently excites a nausea, and sometimes proves emetick. It is generally in a greater or less degree diaphoretick. This water has been highly celebrated for the cure of cutaneous affections. When used with prudence, and persisted in for a sufficient length of time, a failure of obtaining relief in those generally obstinate and very troublesome complaints has rarely happened. In dropsical affections, in the gout, rheumatism, piles, in the foulest and most obstinate ulcers, of the scorbutick, scrofulous and even cancerous kinds, in loss of appetite, an impaired state of the digestive faculties, in loss of motion from paralytick affections, in long continued weakness of the eyes, in nervous head aches, and in all those peculiar female cases, where a strong and powerfully aperient chalybeate can be considered as a proper remedy, the mineral waters of Stafford have been found highly beneficial. The prospects in the immediate vicinity of the spring are most strikingly picturesque. Meandering streams, verdant meads, hills, dales, rocks, grottos, woods, cliffs and precipices, are all grouped together within a short distance, and form a most curious assemblage of wild, romantick scenery. To the enthusiastick admirers of nature in her rude and unattired form, this spot must be peculiarly interesting. Great inconvenience was formerly suffered by visitors, from the almost total want of accommodations in the vicinity of the spring; but that evil is now in a good degree removed.

Constitution and Courts of Justice.] The constitution of Connecticut is founded on their charter, which was granted by Charles II. in 1662, and on a law of the state. Contented with this form of government, the people have not been disposed to run the hazard of framing a new constitution since the declaration of independence.

Agreeable to this charter, the supreme legislative authority of the state is vested in a governour, lieutenant-governour, twelve assistants or counsellors, and the representatives of the people, styled the general assembly. The governour, lieutenant-governour and assistants, are annually chosen by the freemen in the month of May. The representatives (their number not to exceed two from each town) are chosen by the freemen twice a year, to attend the two annual sessions, on the second Thursdays of May and October. This assembly has power to erect judicatories, for the trial of causes civil and criminal, and to ordain and establish laws. The general assembly is divided into two branches, called the upper and lower houses. The upper house is composed of the governour, lieutenant-governour and assistants. The lower house, of the representatives of the people. No law can pass without the concurrence of both houses. In each of the counties is a county court, and one supreme or circuit court for the whole state. In each are five justices or judges, who are appointed by the general assembly. All the justices of the state are annually appointed by the assembly, and commissioned by the governour. The judges of the superior court hold their offices during the pleasure of the general assembly. The judges of the county courts, and justices, are annually appointed. Sheriffs are appointed by the governour and council, without limitation of time. The governour is

captain-general of the militia, the lieutenant-governour, lieutenant-general. All other military officers are appointed by the assembly and commisioned by the governour.

The mode of electing the governour, lieutenant-governour, assistants, treasurer and secretary, is as follows: The freemen in the several towns meet on the Monday next after the first Tuesday in April, annually, and give in their votes for the persons they choose for the said offices respectively, with their names written on a piece of paper, which are received and sealed up by a constable in open meeting, the votes for each office by themselves, with the name of the town and office written on the outside. These votes, thus sealed, are sent to the General Assembly in May, and there counted by a committee from both houses. All freemen are eligible to any office in government. In choosing assistants, twenty persons are nominated by the vote of each free man, at the freemen's meeting for choosing representatives in September, annually. These votes are sealed up, and sent to the General Assembly in October, and are there counted by a committee of both houses, and the twenty persons who have the most votes, stand in nomination; out of which number the twelve who have the greatest number of votes, given by the freemen at their meeting in April, are, in May, declared assistants in the manner abovementioned. The qualifications of freemen are, quiet and peaceable behaviour, a civil conversation, and freehold estate to the value of forty shillings per annum, or forty pounds personal estate in the list, certified by the selectmen of the town; it is necessary, also, that they take the oath of fidelity to the state. Their names are enrolled in the town clerk's office, and they continue freemen for life, unless disfranchised by sentence of the superior court, on conviction of misdemeanour.

The courts are as follows: The justices of the peace, of whom a number are annually appointed in each town by the General Assembly, have authority to keep the peace, and to hear and determine civil actions, where the demand does not exceed four pounds. If the demand exceeds forty shillings, an appeal to the county courts is allowed. They have cognizance of small offences, and may punish by fine, not exceeding forty shillings, or whipping not exceeding ten stripes, or sitting in the stocks. There are eight county courts in the state, held in the several counties by one judge and four justices of the quorum, who have jurisdiction of all criminal cases, arising within their respective counties, where the punishment does not extend to life, limb, or banishment. They have original jurisdiction of all civil actions which exceed the jurisdiction of a justice. Either party may appeal to the superior court, if the demand exceeds twenty pounds, except on bonds or notes vouched by two witnesses.

There are several courts of probate in each county, consisting of one judge. The peculiar province of this court is the probate of wills, granting administration on intestate estates, ordering distribution of them, and appointing guardians for minors, &c. An appeal lies from any decree of this court to the superior court.

The superior court consists of five judges. It has authority in all criminal cases extending to life, limb, or banishment, and other high

crimes and misdemeanours, to grant divorces, and to hear and determine all civil actions brought by appeal from the county courts, or the court of probate, and to correct the errors of all inferior courts. This is a circuit court, and has two stated sessions in each county, annually. The superior and county courts try matters of fact by jury, or without, if the parties will agree.

There is a supreme court of errors, consisting of the lieutenant-governour and the twelve assistants. Their sole business is to determine writs of error, brought on judgments of the superior court, where the error complained of appears on the record. They have two stated sessions annually, viz. on the Tuesdays of the weeks preceding the stated sessions of the General Assembly.

The county court is a court of chancery, empowered to hear and determine cases in equity, where the matter in demand does not exceed one hundred pounds. The superior court has cognizance of all cases where the demand exceeds that sum. Error may be brought from the county, to the superior court, and from the superior court to the supreme court of errors, on judgment in cases of equity as well as of law.

The General Assembly only have power to grant pardons and reprieves; to grant commissions of bankruptcy; or protect the persons and estates of unfortunate debtors.

The common law of England, so far as it is applicable to this country, is considered as the common law of this state. The reports of adjudication in the courts of king's bench, common pleas and chancery, are read in the courts of this state as authorities; yet the judges do not consider them as conclusively binding, unless founded on solid reasons which will apply in this state, or sanctioned by concurrent adjudications of their own courts.

The feudal system of descents, was never adopted in this state. All the real estase of intestates is equally divided among the children, males and females; and all estates given in tail, must be given to some person then in being or to their immediate issue, and shall become fee simple estates to the issue of the first donee in tail. The widow of an intestate is entitled to a third part of the personal estate forever, and to her dower, or third part of the houses and lands belonging to the intestate at the time of his death, during her life.

Practice of Law.] The practice of law in this state has more simplicity, but less precision, than in England. Assistants and judges are empowered to issue writs through the state, and justices, through their respective counties. In these writs the substance of the complaints or the declarations must be contained, and if neither of the parties shew good reason for delay, the causes are heard and determined the same term to which the writs are returnable. Few of the fictions of law so common in the English practice, are known in this state. The plaintiff always has his election to attach or summon the defendant. Attornies are admitted and qualified by the county courts. Previous to their admission to the bar, they must study two years with a practising attorney in the state, if they have had a college education, and three years if they have not; their morals must be good, and their characters unblemished, and they must sustain an

examination by the attornies of the court of the county where they are admitted, and be by them recommended to the court. When admitted to the county court, they can practise without other qualifications, in any court in the state. There are upon an average, about fifteen attornies to each county, one hundred and twenty in the state. There is no attorney-general, but there is one state attorney in each county.

New Inventions.] Early in the war, Mr. David Bushnel, of Saybrook, invented a machine for *submarine* navigation, altogether different from any thing hitherto devised by the art of man. This machine was so constructed as that it could be rowed horizontally, at any given depth under water, and could be raised or depressed at pleasure. To this machine, called the *American Turtle*, was attached a magazine of powder, which was intended to be fastened under the bottom of a ship, with a driving screw, in such a way as that the same stroke which disengaged it from the machine should put the internal clock-work in motion. This being done, the ordinary operation of a gun lock, at the distance of half an hour, or any determinate time, would cause the powder to explode and leave the effects to the common laws of nature. The simplicity yet combination discovered in the mechanism of this wonderful machine, have been acknowledged by those skilled in physicks, and particularly hydraulicks, to be no less ingenious than novel. Mr. Bushnel invented several other curious machines for the annoyance of the British shipping, but from accidents, not militating against the philosophical principles, on which their success depended, they but partially succeeded. He destroyed a vessel in the charge of commodore Symmonds. One of his kegs also demolished a vessel near the Long-Island shore. About Christmas, 1777, he committed to the Delaware river a number of kegs, destined to fall among the British fleet at Philadelphia; but this squadron of kegs having been separated and retarded by the ice, demolished but a single boat. This catastrophe, however, produced an alarm, unprecedented in its nature and degree; which has been so happily described by the late Hon. Francis Hopkinson, in a song, styled "The Battle of the Kegs,"* that the event it celebrates will not be forgotten, so long as mankind shall continue to be delighted with works of humour and taste.

Mr. Hanks, of Litchfield, has invented a method of winding up clocks by means of air or wind only, which is ingenious, and practised upon in New-York and other places.

Mr Culver, of Norwich has constructed a Dock Drudge, which is a boat for clearing docks and removing bars in rivers; a very ingenious and useful machine. Its good effects have already been experienced in the navigation of the river Thames, the channel of which has been considerably deepened. This machine will no doubt be productive of very great advantages to navigation, throughout the United States.

The Rev. Joseph Badger, while a member of Yale College, in 1785, constructed an ingenious planetarium, (without ever having

* See Hopkinson's Works, lately published in Philadelphia.

teen one of the kind) which is deposited in the library of that university.

Some valuable machines for cutting nails have been invented in this state.

Mr. Eli Whitney of New-Haven, has invented a most ingenious machine for cleansing cotton of the seeds. This gentleman has made great improvements in the manufacture of fire arms, and carries on this business, on a large scale, in the vicinity of New-Haven. His works form an interesting object of attention, and are visited with delight by travellers of science and taste.

The Rev. Jared Eliot, of Killingworth, invented sand-iron, or the making of iron from black sand, in 1761.

History.] The present territory of Connecticut, at the time of the first arrival of the English, was possessed by the Pequot, the Mohegan, Podunk and many other smaller tribes of Indians.

The Pequots were numerous and warlike. Their country extended along the sea-coast from Paukatuck to Connecticut river. About the year 1630, this powerful tribe extended their conquests over a considerable part of Connecticut, over all Long-Island and a part of Narraganset. SASSACUS, who was the grand monarch of the whole country, was king of this nation. The seat of his dominion was at New-London; the ancient Indian name of which was Pequot.

The Mohegans were a numerous tribe and their territory extensive. Their ancient claim comprehended most of New-London county, almost the whole of the county of Windham, and a part of the counties of Tolland and Hartford. Uncas, distinguished for his friendship to the English, was the sachem of this tribe.

The Podunks inhabited East-Hartford, and the circumjacent country. The first sachem of this tribe of whom the English had any knowledge was Tatanimoo. He was able to bring into the field more than 200 fighting men.

The first grant of Connecticut was made by the Plymouth Council to the Earl of Warwick, in 1630, and confirmed by his Majesty in council the same year. This grant comprehended "all that part of New-England which lies west from Narraganset river, 120 miles on the sea-coast."* The year following, the Earl assigned this grant to Lord Say and Seal, Lord Brook, and nine others, who held it in trust for the Puritan emigrants from England.

No English settlements were attempted in Connecticut until the year 1633, when a number of Indian traders having purchased of Zequasson and Natawanut, two principal sachems, a tract of land at the mouth of Little River in Windsor, built a house and fortified it, and ever after maintained their right of soil upon the river.

* "The south line of Massachusetts fell on lat. 42° 2′. The west line of Plymouth colony was Narraganset Bay and river. The Earl of Warwick was bounded north by Massachusetts; east by Narraganset Bay and river; thence to be *two* degrees in latitude, or 160 geographical miles in breadth, which extended to about Philadelphia, and to run this breadth of two degrees across the continent. Arbitrary crown law interposed afterwards and construed it as above."

[*Dr. Stiles.*]

The same year, a little before the arrival of the English, a company of Dutch traders came to Hartford, and built a house which they called the Hirse of Good Hope, and erected a small fort, in which they planted two cannon. The remains of this settlement are still visible on the bank of Connecticut river. They erected another fort among the Indians at Tetoket, now Branford. These were the only settlements of the Dutch in Connecticut in these ancient times. The Dutch, and after them the province of New-York, for a long time, claimed as far east as the western bank of Connecticut river. It belongs to the professed historian to prove or disprove the justice of this claim. Douglass says, "The partition line between New-York and Connecticut as established December 1, 1664, run from the mouth of Memoroncok river, (a little west from Byram river) N. N. W. and was the ancient easterly limits of New-York, until November 23, 1683, when the line was run nearly the same as it is now settled."*

In 1634, Lord Say and Seal, &c. sent over a small number of men who built a fort at Saybrook, and held a treaty with the Pequot Indians, who in a formal manner, gave to the English their right to Connecticut river and the adjacent country.

Upon the deforced surrendry of the Plymouth Company's patent to the crown, in 1635, the whole territory of New-England was regranted in large partitions, to a number of lords and proprietors. And among the rest, in 1635, were granted to the duke of Hamilton all the lands between Narraganset and Connecticut rivers, and back into the country indefinitely.

This covered a part of the Earl of Warwick's patent, and occasioned some disputes in the colony. There were several attempts to revive the Hamilton claim, but they were never prosecuted. The patent of Lord Say and Seal prevailed.

In October of this year, about sixty persons, from Newtown, Dorchester, and Watertown, in Massachusetts, came and settled Hartford, Weathersfield and Windsor in Connecticut; and the June following the famous Mr. Hooker and his company, came and settled at Hartford, and was a friend and father to the colony till his death.

The first court held in Connecticut was at Weathersfield or Watertown, April 26th, 1636; and the next year was distinguished by the war with the Pequots.

In consequence of the Pequot war, 1637, the English obtained the country east of the Dutch settlements, by right of conquest. The pursuit of the Indians led to an acquaintance with the lands on the sea-coast, from Saybrook to Fairfield. It was reported to be a very fine country. Messrs. Eaton and Hopkins, two very respectable London merchants, and Mr. Davenport, a man of distinguished piety and abilities, with their company, who arrived this year (1637) from London, made choice of this part of the country as the place of their settlement. "Within the Earl of Warwick's patent, 1631, and under the patronage of Lord Say and Seal, to whom said patent had been assigned, and who held for the settlers both at Connecticut, Saybrook, Quinnipoke, and Pequot, and under whom all held

* Douglass' Sum. Vol. II. p. 161.

who settled within the limits of Lord Say and Seal's, originally the Earl of Warwick's patent; which, together with Massachusetts and and Plymouth, which had passed from the Plymouth Company before 1630, as well as New-Hampshire, and Ferdinando Gorges' Province of Maine, were saved from the arbitrary absorption of the surrendry of 1635."* Their friends in Massachusetts, sorry to part with so valuable a company, dissuaded them from their purpose. Influenced however, by the promising prospects which the country afforded, they determined to proceed. Accordingly in the fall of 1637 they sent four men who wintered at Quinipioke, and in March, 1638, a body sufficient for three towns removed from Boston under the leading of Mr. Eaton, and settled at New-Haven, and laid the foundation of a flourishing colony, of which Quinipioke, now New-Haven, was the chief town. The first publick worship in this new plantation was attended on Lord's day, April 18th, 1638, under a large spreading oak. The Rev. Mr. Davenport preached from Matt. iii. 1. on the temptations of the wilderness. Both colonies, Connecticut and New-Haven, formed themselves into distinct commonwealths, and remained so until their union in 1665.

In 1639, the three towns on Connecticut river, already mentioned, being without the limits of any jurisdiction, formed themselves into a body politick, and agreed upon articles of civil government. These articles were the foundation of Connecticut charter, which was granted in 1662. The substance of the articles so far as they respect the holding of assemblies, the time and manner of electing magistrates and other civil officers, (except that in the old confederation no person was to be chosen governour more than once in two years) and the extent of legislative powers, was transferred into, and established in said charter; which in this respect was more conformable to the constitution of New-Haven than Connecticut.

The first church was gathered in New-Haven this year, and consisted of seven members. These were chosen by the settlers after Mr. Davenport had preached from the words of Solomon, "Wisdom hath builded her house, she hath hewn out her seven pillars." These men were indeed the pillars of the church, to whom the rest were added as they became qualified. They were also the court to try all civil actions.

The first settlers in New-Haven had all things common; all purchases were made in the name and for the use of the whole plantation, and the lands were apportioned out to each family, according to their number and original stock.

At their first election in October, 1639, Mr. Theophilus Eaton was chosen governour for the first year. Their elections, by agreement, were to be annual and the word of God their only rule in conducting the affairs of government in the plantation.

The confederation of the New-England colonies, formed and entered into by the four principal colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth,

* Dr. Stiles.

Connecticut and New-Haven, in 1643,† continued in force till the time of Sir Edmund Andros, 1686, and were of great utility, both for defence against the aboriginals, and for harmonizing the publick counsels in church and state. At the time of this confederation, the colonies of Connecticut and New-Haven consisted of only three towns each.

The general court of New-Haven this year established it as a fundamental article, that none be admitted as free burgesses but church members, and that none but such should vote at elections. They also ordained, That each town choose from among themselves judges (church members) to be a court, to have cognizance of all civil actions not exceeding twenty pounds; and of criminal cases, where the punishment was setting in the stocks, whipping, and fining not exceeding five pounds. There was liberty of appeal from this court to the court of magistrates. The court of magistrates consisted of all the magistrates throughout the colony, who were to meet twice a year at New-Haven, for the trial of all capital causes. Six made a quorum.

The general court was to consist of the governour, deputy-governour, magistrates and two representatives from each town. The annual election of officers of goverment was at this time established, and has ever since continued.

The unsettled state of the colony had hitherto prevented their establishing a code of laws. To supply this defect, the general court ordered, "That the judicial laws of God as they were delivered to Moses, and as they are a fence to the moral, being neither typical nor ceremonial, nor having any reference to Canaan, shall be accounted of moral equity and generally bind all offenders, and be a rule to all the courts in this jurisdiction in their proceedings against offenders, until they be branched out into particulars hereafter."

About this time a war broke out between the Mohegan and Narraganset Indians. A personal quarrel between Onkus, sachem of Mohegan, and Sequesson, sachem of Connecticut, was the foundation of the war.*

In consideration of the success and increase of the New-England colonies, and that they had been of no charge to the nation, and in prospect of their being in future very serviceable to it, the English parliament, March 10, 1643, granted them an exemption from all customs, subsidies and other duties, until further order.

In 1644, the Connecticut adventurers purchased of Mr. Fenwick, agent for Lord Say and Seal, and Lord Brook, their right to the colony of Connecticut, for 1600l.

The colony of Connecticut expressed their disapprobation of the use of tobacco, in an act of their general assembly at Hartford, in 1647, wherein it was ordered, "That no person under the age of twenty years, nor any other that hath already accustomed himself to

† The articles of this confederation, and the *Records of the United Colonies*, which contain much important information, and have been often referred to by historians, are to be found, *in print*, only in the valuable *Historical Collections* of *Ebenezer Hazard*, Esq. Vol. II.

* See Winthrop's Journal, p. 303—305.

the use thereof, shall take any tobacco, until he shall have brought a certificate from under the hand of some who are approved for knowledge and skill in physick, that it is useful for him; and also that he hath received a license from the court, for the same. All others who had addicted themselves to the use of tobacco were, by the same court, prohibited taking it in any company, or at their labours, or on their travels, unless they were ten miles at least from any house, or more than once a day, though not in company, on pain of a fine of *six pence* for each time; to be proved by one substantial evidence. The constable in each town to make presentment of such transgressions to the particular court, and upon conviction, the fine to be paid without gainsaying."

Massachusetts and New-Haven colonies were more cruel towards the Quakers than either Connecticut or Plymouth. Of the four, Connecticut was the most moderate. The general court of New-Haven, in 1658, passed a severe law against the Quakers. They introduced their law which was copied from the act of the commissioners of the colonies, with this preamble:

"Whereas there is a cursed sect of hereticks lately sprung up in the world, commonly called Quakers, who take upon them that they are immediately sent from God, and infallibly assisted by the Spirit, who yet speak and write blasphemous opinions, despise government, and the order of God in church and commonwealth, speaking evil of dignities, &c.

Ordered, that whosoever shall bring, or cause to be brought, any known Quaker or Quakers, or other blasphemous hereticks, shall forfeit the sum of £50. Also,

If a Quaker come into this jurisdiction on civil business, the time of his stay shall be limited by the civil authority, and he shall not use any means to corrupt or seduce others. On his first arrival, he shall appear before a magistrate, and from him receive license to pass on his business; and (for the better prevention of hurt to the people) have one or more to attend upon them at their charge, &c. The penalties in case of disobedience, were whipping, imprisonment, labour, and a deprivation of all converse with any person."

For the second offence, the person was to be branded in the hand with the letter H, to suffer imprisonment, and be put to labour. For the third, to be branded in the other hand, imprisoned, &c. as before. For the fourth, the offender was to have his tongue bored through with a red-hot iron, imprisoned, and kept to labour, until sent away at their own charge.

Any person who shall attempt to defend the sentiments of the Quakers, was, for the third offence, to be sentenced to banishment.*

Had the pious framers of these laws paid due attention to the excellent advice of that sagacious doctor of the law, Gamaliel, they

* "This law continued but two years, and was annulled at the restoration in 1660. Virginia had this law, and that also against witchcraft. In New-Haven I find a trial or two, and no more, on witches, but never a condemnation to any kind of punishment. There never was a single judgment or execution of the law upon a Quaker. Neither witches nor Quakers were ever condemned or in the least punished in the colony of New Haven." [*Dr. Stiles.*]

would perhaps, have been prevented from the adoption of such severe unjustifiable measures. This wise man, when his countrymen were about to be outrageous in persecuting the apostles, addressed them in the following words, which merit to be engraved in letters of gold: "*Refrain from these men, and let them alone; for if this counsel or this work be of men, it will come to nought: but if it be of God, ye cannot overthrow it; lest haply ye be found to fight against God.*"* This divine maxim was but little attended to in times of persecution. Our ancestors seem to have left it to posterity to make the important discovery, that persecution is the direct method to multiply its objects.

But these people, who have been so much censured and ridiculed, had perhaps, as many virtues as their posterity. And it would be wise in the moderns, who stand elevated upon the shoulders of their ancestors, with the book of their experience spread before them, to improve from their virtues and to veil their faults.

The colonies of Connecticut and New-Haven, from their first settlement, increased rapidly; tracts of land were purchased of the Indians, and new towns settled from Stamford to Stonington and far back into the country, when, in 1661, Major John Mason, as agent for the colony, bought of the natives all lands which had not before been purchased by particular towns, and made a publick surrendry of them to the colony, in the presence of the general assembly. Having done these things, the colonists petitioned king Charles II. for a charter, and their petition was granted. His Majesty on the 23d of April, 1662, issued his letters patent under the great seal, ordaining that the colony of Connecticut should, forever hereafter, be one body corporate and politick, in fact and in name, confirming to them their ancient grant and purchase, and fixing their boundaries as follows, viz. "All that part of his Majesty's dominions in New-England in America, bounded east by Narraganset river, commonly called Narraganset Bay, where the river falleth into the sea; and on the north by the line of Massachusetts plantation; and on the south by the sea, and in longitude as the line of the Massachusetts colony running from east to west, that is to say, from the said Narraganset Bay on the east, to the South Sea on the west part, with the islands thereunto belonging." This charter has ever since remained the basis of the government of Connecticut, which was originally the Earl of Warwick's patent, 120 miles of two degrees in breadth, and extending from Narraganset Bay across the continent. Connecticut charter comprehended the same. But court construction in 1664, limited the 120 miles to the sea-coast, instead of the two meridional degrees. New-Haven people had actually made an emigration and settlement under Lord Say and Seal, at Delaware, near Philadelphia, in 1655, evidently shewing that it was the original understanding that the Earl of Warwick's patent extended two degrees in breadth below Massachusetts. But for the gratification of the Duke of York, this was arbitrarily taken from the purchasers of Lord Say and Seal's title, and erected into the colonies of New-York, New-Jersey, and Pensylvania, by the Duke.

* Acts, chap. v.

Such was the ignorance of the Europeans, respecting the geography of America, that their patents extended they knew not where. Many of them were of doubtful construction, and very often covered each other in part, and have produced innumerable disputes and mischiefs in the colonies, some of which are not settled to this day. It is not my business to touch upon these disputes. I have only to observe, that Connecticut construed her charter as authorising them to pass over New-York, which was then in possession of the subjects of a Christain Prince, and claimed, in latitude and breadth mentioned therein, to the South-Sea. Accordingly, in 1754, purchases were made of the Indians of the Six Nations, by a number of the inhabitants of Connecticut, called the *Susquehannah* and *Delaware* companies, of a large tract of land, lying west of Delaware river, and thence spreading over the east and west branches of Susquehannah river, on which considerable settlements were shortly after made. These settlers were incorporated afterwards by the general assembly of Connecticut, and made a distinct town, by the name of *Westmoreland*, and annexed to the county of Litchfield.

The charter of Pennsylvania, granted to William Penn in 1681, covered these settlements. This laid the foundation for a dispute, which for a long time was maintained with warmth on both sides. The matter was at last submitted to gentlemen chosen for the purpose, who decided the dispute in favour of Pennsylvania. Many, however, still assert the justice of the Connecticut claim, in whose favour there was once a decision of the court.

It will not be considered as out of place here to observe, that although Connecticut was forced to yield her claim to the lands within the limits of her charter, which were comprised within that of Pennsylvania, she did not relinquish the right her charter gave her to the lands lying west of Pennsylvania, and between that state and the Missisippi. At the close of the revolution, she ceded all her charter claims west of Pennsylvania, to congress,* reserving only a tract the width of the state of Connecticut, and 120 miles in length; bounded east on the western line of Pennsylvania, and north by Lake Erie, containing nearly *four millions* of acres. This cession was accepted by congress, which establishes to Connecticut her title to these lands. The legislature of Connecticut, in 1793, granted to the sufferers, in the several towns that were burnt during the war, a tract of half a million of acres, on the west end of this reservation; and in the summer of 1795, sold the remainder, consisting of about 3,300,000 acres, to Oliver Phelps, William Hart and associates, for *one million two hundred thousand dollars*. This sum, by an act of the legislature of Connecticut, passed in June, 1795, is appropriated to the *support of schools* in the several societies constituted by law, within the state; and also, in such societies as may request it, and by leave of the general assembly, for the *support of the Christian ministry and the publick worship of God*.

Two persons have been employed to explore the tract of land of which we have been speaking. They represent "that the shore of the

* See Resolves of Congress for September 14, 1786.

lake (Erie) is bold and has several good harbours; that the land in general is level, descending a little to the northwest; that it is watered by two large and a number of smaller rivers; that it rises into waving hills, but that there is not a mountain of any size on the whole tract; that the soil, generally speaking, is of the first quality; and that there are several salt springs, whose waters, it is asserted, yield as much salt in proportion as sea-water."

The native right to half this territory was extinguished by a treaty held several years ago by General Parsons. A great part of this tract falls east and south of the boundary line between the United States and the Indians, as settled by the late treaty, by General Wayne. On application from the proprietors, the state of Connecticut, Oct. 1797, passed an act, authorising the senators of the said state, in Congress, to execute a deed of release in behalf of said state, to the United States, *of the jurisdiction* of said territory. The committee of Congress to whom was referred this report, were of opinion that the cession of *jurisdiction* offered by the state of Connecticut ought to be accepted by the United States; and this report, if I mistake not, was accepted.

"The country is regularly laid out in towns of five miles square; of which there are about one hundred and twenty. Publick roads generally cross at right angles, at the centre of the towns. The face of the country is level but not flat. In this respect it will compare pretty accurately, with some of the most level towns in Connecticut. Perhaps Milford and Southington; but there are no sandy plains. The strength, the depth and fertility of the soil are very great. For this, the country, taken together, will equal and probably exceed the towns of Durham or Weathersfield. The soil is generally loam and clay, with mixtures of sand. For so level a country it is very well watered. Very few farms can be found, without a running stream or living springs; the springs are generally pure wholesome water. The streams afford many convenient sites for mills; one or more good mill-seats can be found in most of the towns; but the streams not being fed from hills and mountains, dry away more in the summer season than in New-England. Most of the mills, excepting those on the rivers, are still two or three months in a year; the country is now supplied with mills, tolerably well in all parts. Of stone, the land in general is almost wholly destitute; yet there are many quarries and ledges more or less in almost every town; some valuable stone for building have been found, and probably much more remains to be discovered. In some parts lime-stone are plenty; coal has been found in many places, which will afford inexhaustible supplies of fuel. The land appears to be well calculated for all kinds of crops raised in New-England and the middle states; grass, and grain of all kinds grow luxuriantly; hemp and tobacco grow well, on common land without manure. The timber is of all kinds; whitewood and oak, of which there are large quantities, are used principally for boards; black-walnut, hickory and butternut are also used; there is some pine, but it is scarce. The western part of the country is the strongest land; but it is more level, more heavily timbered, and not so well watered as the eastern.

"The number of families who wintered in the country last winter, was nearly eight hundred; these were in about fifty towns. The emigrations, this year, it is thought will exceed any one preceding; there will not be far from 200 families. The year past there has been a supply of provisions for the inhabitants, and will be the present year. It is no advantage to a new country to be settled faster than provisions can be raised for the new settlers. Schools are established in most of the settlements; in Nelson is one which has but seven families. All the settlements are visited by the Connecticut missionaries, who are gladly received and treated with attention and kindness; and the people feel under many obligations to the people of Connecticut, by whose liberality they are favoured with a preached gospel.

"The legislature of this state has granted a charter, and appointed the board of trustees for a college in this county. New-Connecticut is now about as old, and as large a settlement, as the colony of Massachusetts was, when they instituted Harvard College. The place for this college is not yet determined, but it will probably be established soon. The trustees are all New-England men; and they will endeavour to regulate it after the mode of those flourishing and useful seminaries, with which they have been acquainted. If the land company will endow it with all or the principal part of the lotted towns, they will be the founders of a literary institution, which, for a century, will be the first, if not the only one of consequence on this side the mountains. These towns must be of little worth to the proprietors, in their present tenure; but given to a publick institution, would be of lasting benefit. A college must take the lead in this country, before academies and schools can be usefully established.

"The market for exportation from this country, must be down the Ohio and Missisippi. A barrel of flour can be carried from the ports on the Ohio, near this country, to New-Orleans, for a dollar. Other heavy articles in the same proportion. It is generally thought that foreign commodities must be brought from Philadelphia and Baltimore by land; or by way of Albany and the lakes. Should the projected road from Catskill to Lake Erie be accomplished, that will probably be the best way for the conveyance of foreign articles from the eastern waters to this country. But it is said, the late experiments have proved that foreign commodities can be brought from New-Orleans to the upper parts of Ohio, much cheaper than in any other way. Should that navigation succeed, this country will be well accommodated on account of market. Ship-building, on the Ohio, is like to be a very great and profitable branch of business; indeed it is already. A ship of 300 tons has gone from Pittsburg. Timber of all kinds, hemp and iron, can be easily obtained in the country; the vessel itself will produce a good profit; added to which is the freight of nearly a full load.

"It is expected that this county will be divided at the next session of the legislature, probably into four; but they will not be organized till the number of inhabitants shall render it expedient. It is best that the whole Reserve should retain and be known by the name of *New-*

Connecticut. That is the name which it receives in the middle states, and it is best that it should be general.

"The Courts in the county are respectable; they have however but little business. There are five attornies in the county, but their practice would afford but little more than a competent support for one. Their business increases, but the people appear not much disposed for litigation."

The colony of New-Haven, though unconnected with the colony of Connecticut, was comprehended within the limits of their charter, and, as they concluded, within their jurisdiction. But New-Haven remonstrated against their claim, and refused to unite with them, until they should hear from England. It was not until the year 1665, when it was believed that the king's commissioners had a design upon the New-England charters, that these two colonies formed a union, which has ever since amicably subsisted between them.

In 1672, the laws of the colony were revised, and the general court ordered them to be printed; and also, "that every family should buy one of the law books; such as pay in silver, to have a book for twelve pence, such as pay in wheat, to pay a peck and a half a book; and such as pay in peas, to pay two shillings a book, the peas at three shillings the bushel." Perhaps it is owing to this early and universal spread of law books, that the people of Connecticut are to this day so fond of the law.

In 1750, the laws of Connecticut were again revised, and published in a small folio volume of 258 pages. Dr. Douglass observes, "that they were the most natural, equitable, plain and concise *code* of laws, for plantations, hitherto extant."

There has been a revision of them since the peace of 1783, in which they were greatly and very judiciously simplified.

The years 1675 and 1676, were distinguished by the wars with Phillip and his Indians, and with the Narragansets, by which the colony was thrown into great distress and confusion. The inroads of the enraged savages were marked with cruel murders, and with fire and devastation.

In 1684, the charter of Massachusetts Bay and Plymouth were taken away, in consequence of *Quo warrantos* which had been issued against them. The charter of Connecticut was saved by an artful expedient.

Connecticut has ever made rapid advances in population. There have been more emigrations from this than from any other of the states, and yet it is at present full of inhabitants. This increase may be ascribed to several causes. The bulk of the inhabitants are industrious, sagacious husbandmen. Their farms furnish them with all the necessaries, most of the conveniences, and but few of the luxuries of life. They of course must be generally temperate, and if they choose, can subsist with as much independence as is consistent with happiness. The subsistence of the farmer is substantial, and does not depend on incidental circumstances, like that of most other professions. There is no necessity of serving an apprenticeship to the business, nor of a large stock of money to commence it to advantage. Farmers, who deal much in barter, have less need of money than any other class of

people. The ease with which a comfortable subsistence is obtained, induces the husbandman to marry young. The cultivation of his farm makes him strong and healthful. He toils cheerfully through the day—eats the fruit of his own labour with a gladsome heart—at night devoutly thanks his bounteous God for his daily blessing—retires to rest, and his sleep is sweet. Such circumstances as these have greatly contributed to the amazing increase of the inhabitants in this state.

Besides, the people live under a free government, and have no fear of a tyrant. There are no overgrown estates, with rich and ambitious landlords, to have an undue and pernicious influence in the election of civil officers. Property is equally enough divided, and must continue to be so as long as estates descend as they now do. No person qualified by law is prohibited from voting. He who has the most merit, not he who has the most money, is generally chosen into publick office. As instances of this, it is to be observed, that many of the citizens of Connecticut, from the humble walks of life, have arisen to the first offices in the state, and filled them with dignity and reputation. That base business of electioneering, which is so directly calculated to introduce wicked and designing men into office, is yet but little known in Connecticut. A man who wishes to be chosen into office, acts wisely for that end, when he keeps his desires to himself.

A thirst for learning prevails among all ranks of people in the state. More of the young men in Connecticut, in proportion to their numbers, receive a publick education, than in any of the states.

Some have believed, and with reason, that the fondness for academick and collegiate education is too great; that it induces too many to leave the plough. If men of liberal education would return to the farm and use their knowledge in improving agriculture, and encouraging manufactures, there could not be too many men of learning in the state; but this is too seldom the case.

Connecticut had but a small proportion of citizens who did not join in opposing the oppressive measures of Great-Britain, and was active and influential, both in the field and in the cabinet, in bringing about the revolution. Her soldiers were applauded by the commander in chief, for their bravery and fidelity.

What has been said in favour of Connecticut, though true when generally applied, needs to be qualified with some exceptions. Dr. Douglass spoke the truth when he said that "some of the meaner sort are villains." Too many are idle and dissipated, and much time is unprofitably and wickedly spent at taverns, in law-suits and petty arbitrations. The publick schools in some parts of the state have been too much neglected, and in procuring instructors, too little attention is paid to their morals and literary qualifications.

The revolution, which so essentially affected the government of most of the colonies, produced no very perceptible alteration in the government of Connecticut. While under the jurisdiction of Great-Britain, they elected their own governours, and all subordinate civil officers, and made their own laws, in the same manner, and with as little control as they now do. Connecticut has ever been a repub-

lick, and perhaps as perfect and as happy a republick as has ever existed. While other states, more monarchical in their government and manners, have been under a necessity of undertaking the difficult task of altering their old, or forming new constitutions, and of changing their monarchical for republican manners, Connecticut has uninterruptedly proceeded in her old track, both as to government and manners; and, by these means, has avoided those convulsions which have rent other states into violent parties.

At the anniversary election of governour and other publick officers, which is held yearly at Hartford on the second Thursday in May, a sermon is preached, which is published at the expense of the state.* On these occasions a vast concourse of respectable citizens, particularly of the clergy, are collected from every part of the state; and while they add dignity and solemnity to the important and joyful transactions of the day, serve to exterminate party spirit, and to harmonize the civil and religious interests of the state.

Connecticut has been highly distinguished in having a succession of governours, eminent both for their religious and political accomplishments. With the following list of their names, I shall conclude my account of Connecticut.

Colony of Connecticut.			Colony of New-Haven.		
Accessus.	*Names.*	*Exitus.*	*Accessus.*	*Names.*	*Exitus.*
1639	John Haynes,	1640	1639	Theoph. Eaton, Esquires.	1658 Died.
1640	Edward Hopkins,	1641	1659	Fran. Newman, Esquires.	1661 Died.
1641	John Haynes,	1642	1662	William Leet,	1665.
1642	George Wyllis,	1643	This year (1665) the colonies of		
1643	John Haynes,	1644	New-Haven and Connecticut united, and governour Winthrop was		
1644	Edward Hopkins,	1645			
1645	John Haynes,	1646	governour of both, and governour		
1646	Edward Hopkins,	1647	Leet, deputy-governour.		

Accessus.	*Names.*	*Exitus.*
1647	John Haynes,	1648
1648	Edward Hopkins,	1649
1649	John Haynes,	1650
1650	Edward Hopkins,	1651
1651	John Haynes,	1652
1652	Edward Hopkins,	1653
1653	John Haynes,	1653 died
1654	Edward Hopkins,	1655

* Would it not answer many valuable purposes, if the gentlemen who are annually appointed to preach the election sermons, would furnish a sketch of the history of the state for the current year, to be published at the close of their sermons? Such a sketch, which might easily be made, would render election sermons much more valuable. They would then be a very authentick *depositum* of facts for future historians of the state; they would be more generally and more eagerly purchased and read; they would serve to disseminate important knowledge, that of the internal affairs of the state, which every citizen ought to know; and might, if judiciously executed, operate as a check upon party spirit, and upon ambitious and designing men.

Accessus.	*Names.*	*Exitus.*
1655	Thomas Wells,	1656
1656	John Webster,	1657
1657	John Winthrop,	1658
1658	Thomas Wells,	1659
1659	John Winthrop,	1670
1676	William Leet,	1680
1680	Robert Treat,	1696
1696	John Winthrop,	1707
1707	Gurdon Saltonstal,	1724
1724	Joseph Talcot,	1741
1741	Jonathan Law,	1751
1751	Roger Woolcot,	1754
1754	Thomas Fitch,	1766
1766	William Pitkin,	1769
1769	Jonathan Trumbull,	1784
1784	Matthew Griswold,	1785
1785	Samuel Huntington,	1796 died
1797	Jonathan Trumbull, Esquires.	

The first volume of the history of this state, has been lately published by the Rev. Dr. Trumbull of North-Haven. To this valuable work the reader is referred.

MIDDLE STATES.

WE now come to the Second Grand Division of the United States, comprehending

New-York,	Ohio,
New-Jersey,	Indiana Territory,
Pennsylvania,	and
Delaware,	Michigan Territory.

Boundaries.] Bounded north by Upper Canada, from which it is separated by the lakes; east by the New-England States; south by the Atlantick Ocean, Maryland, Virginia and the Ohio river, which separates it from Kentucky; west by the Missisippi river.

Rivers and Bays.] The principal rivers in this district are the Hudson, the Delaware, Susquehannah, the Ohio, the Missisippi, and their branches. York, Delaware, and part of Chesapeak Bays are in this district.

Climate.] The climate of this Grand Division, lying almost in the same latitudes, varies but little from that of New-England. There are no two successive years alike. Even the same successive seasons and months differ from each other every year. And there is perhaps but one steady trait in the character of this climate, and that is, it is uniformly variable. The changes of weather are great, and frequently sudden. The range of the quick silver in Farenheit's thermometer, according to Dr. Mitchill, is between the 24th degree below, and the 105th degree above cypher; and it has been known to vary 50 degrees in the course of 26 hours. Such alterations are much more considerable along the coast, than in the interior and midland parts of the country; and wherever they prevail, are accompanied with proportionate changes in the air, from calms to winds, and from moisture to dryness. Storms and hurricanes sometimes happen, which are so violent as to overset vessels, demolish fences, uproot trees, and unroof buildings. Droughts for six weeks or two months occur now and then. Rain has been known to fall in such abundance that the earth by measurement has received 6,5 inches on a level, in the short space of four hours.* The quantity of water which falls in rain and snow, one year with another, amounts to from 24 to 36 inches.† In the northern parts of this district the snow falls in larger quantities, lies longer, and the cold is more steady and intense, by many degrees than in the southern; hence the climate of the former is more agreeable in winter, and that of the latter in summer. The warmest weather is generally in the month of August; but intensely warm days are often felt in May, June, August and September. Dr. Rittenhouse says that during his residence in the country, in the state of Pennsylvania, he had never passed a summer without discovering frost in every month in the year, except July. The greatest degree of heat upon record in Philadelphia in 1789, was 90°. The standard temperature

* Dr. Mitchill. † Dr. Rush.

of air in Philadelphia is 52½°, which is the temperature of their deepest wells, and the mean heat of their common spring water. There are seldom more than four months in the year, in which the weather is agreeable without a fire. In winter, the winds generally come from the north-west in fair, and from the north-east in wet weather. The north-west winds are uncommonly dry as well as cold.

The climate on the west side of the Allegany mountains differs materially from that on the east side, in the temperature of the air, and the effects of the wind upon the weather, and in the quantity of rain and snow which fall every year. The south-west winds, on the west side of the mountains, are accompanied by cold and rain. The temperature of the air is seldom so cold or so hot by several degrees as on the east side of the mountains.

On the whole, it appears that the climate of this division of the United States is a compound of most of the climates in the world. It has the moisture of Ireland in the spring—the heat of Africa in summer—the temperature of Italy in June—the sky of Egypt in autumn—the snow and cold of Norway, and the ice of Holland in winter—the tempests (in a certain degree) of the West-Indies in every season, and the variable winds and weather of Great-Britain in every month in the year.

From this account of the climate of this district, it is easy to ascertain what degree of health, and what diseases prevail. As the inhabitants have the climates, so they have the acute diseases of all the countries that have been mentioned. Although it might be supposed, that with such changes and varieties in the weather, there would be connected epidemical diseases and an unwholesome climate, yet on the whole, it is found in this district to be as healthy as any part of the United States.*

NEW-YORK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.†

Miles.		Sq. Mls.
Length 350 Breadth 300	between {40° 40′ and 45° north latitude. 5° west and 1° 30′ east longitude.	44,000

Boundaries.] BOUNDED south-eastwardly by the Atlantick Ocean; east by Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Vermont; north by the 45th degree of latitude, which divides it from Canada; north-westwardly by the river Iroquois, or St. Lawrence, and the lakes Ontario and Erie; south-west and west by Pennsylvania and New-Jersey.

* The foregoing remarks are grounded on the authorities of Dr. Rush and Dr. Mitchill, who have published the result of their inquiries in Mr. Carey's Museum, vols. VI. and VII.

† The dimensions are exclusive of Long Island and Staten Island, which belong to this state. For the dimensions of these, see article Islands.

Civil Divisions.] The civil divisions of this state, as they stood in 1800, are exhibited in the following table:

Counties.	No. Towns.	No. Inhab.	Chief Towns.	No. Inhab.	No. Slaves.
New-York	1	60,489	New-York		2,868
Kings	6	5,740	Brooklyn	2,378	1,479
Queens	6	16,893	Jamaica	1,661	1,528
Suffolk	9	19,464	E. Hampton	1,549	886
Richmond	4	4,563	Westfield	1,208	675
West-Chester	23	27,428	Bedford	2,404	1,259
Rockland	4	6,353			551
Clinton and Essex	8	8,514			58
Columbia	9	35,322	Hudson	3,664	1,471
Renssellaer	8	30,442			890
Ontario	19	12,584	Canadaque	1,153	57
Saratoga	10	6,889			358
Otsego	14	1,788			48
Delaware	10	21,700			16
Green	4	15,870			520
Tioga	8	7,406			17
Steuben	6	15,218			22
Montgomery	12	24,483			466
Cayuga	8	21,636			53
Onondago	9	10,228			11
Albany	9	34,043	Albany		1,808
Herkimer	8	14,479	German Flats	1,637	61
Oneida	27	22,047			50
Chenango	10	15,666			16
Washington	16	35,574	Salem	2,861	80
Schohary	6	9,808			354
Dutchess	15	47,775	Fishkill	6,168	1,609
Ulster	12	24,853	Kingston	4,615	2,257
Orange	11	29,355			1,145
Total	292	586,050			20,613

The townships, into which the counties were by law divided, in 1788, are incorporations, invested with certain privileges. The act directs, that the freeholders in the several townships shall assemble in town-meetings, on the first Tuesday in April annually, and choose their town officers, viz. one surveyor, one town-clerk, from three to seven assessors, one or more collectors, two overseers of the poor, commissioners of high ways, constables, fence-viewers, pound masters, &c. These are to hold their respective offices one year, or until others be chosen. This act, which appears to have originated from a spirit of pure republicanism, came in force the first day of April, 1789. It has a happy tendency to disseminate through the state such information and such principles as are calculated to cherish the spirit of freedom, and to support a republican form of government. The fre-

quent collection of people in town meeting makes them acquainted with each other, and assimilates their ideas and their manners. Their being invested with power, makes them feel their importance, and rouses their ambition. Their town meetings will be a school, in which all the free citizens of the sate may learn how to transact publick business with propriety, and in which they may qualify themselves for the higher offices of the state. The number of publick offices will be increased, without increasing the expenses of the state; and as the desire of promotion is innate in human nature, and as ambition to possess the requisite qualifications commonly accompanies this desire, the probability is, that the number of persons qualified for publick office will be increased, and of course the number of good citizens proportionably multiplied, and the subordinate civil affairs of the state more faithfully and more regularly transacted.

Rivers and Canals.] Hudson's river is one of the largest and finest rivers in the United States. It rises in the mountainous country between the lakes Ontario and Champlaine. In its course southeasterly it approaches within 6 or 8 miles of Lake George; then after a short course east, turns southerly, and receives the Socondaga from the S. W. which heads in the neighbourhood of Mohawk river. The course of the river from Fort Edward to New-York, where it empties into York Bay, is very uniformly a little W. of S. Its whole length is about 250 miles. From Albany to *Fort Edward*, is 50 miles. This distance, the river is navigable at present only for batteaux, and has two portages, occasioned by falls, of half a mile each.

The banks of Hudson's river, especially on the western side, as far as the highlands extend, are chiefly rocky cliffs. The passage through the highlands, which is 16 miles, affords a wild romantick scene. In this narrow pass, on each side of which the mountains tower to a great height, the wind, if there be any, is collected and compressed, and blows continually as through a bellows. Vessels in passing through it are often obliged to lower their sails. The bed of this river, which is deep and smooth to an astonishing distance, through a hilly, rocky country, and even through ridges of some very high mountains, must undoubtedly have been produced by some mighty convulsion in nature. The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is 160 miles from New-York. It is navigable for sloops of 80 tons to Albany, and for ships to Hudson. Ship navigation to Albany is interrupted by a number of islands, 6 or 8 miles below the city, called the *Overslaugh*. It is in contemplation to confine the river to one channel, by which means the channel will be deepened, and the difficulty of approaching Albany with vessels of a large size, be removed. About 60 miles above New-York the water becomes fresh. The river is stored with a variety of fish, which renders a summer passage to Albany delightful and amusing to those who are fond of angling.

The advantages of this river for carrying on the fur trade with Canada, by means of the lakes, have been already mentioned. Its convenience for internal commerce is singularly great. The produce of the remotest farms is easily and speedily conveyed to a certain and profitable market, and at the lowest expense. In this respect,

New-York has greatly the advantage of Philadelphia. A great proportion of the produce of Pennsylvania is carried to market in waggons, over a great extent of country, some of which is rough; hence it is that Philadelphia is crowded with waggons, carts, horses and their drivers, to do the same business that is done in New-York, where all the produce of the country is brought to market by water, with much less shew and parade. But Philadelphia has other advantages, which will be mentioned in their proper place, to compensate for this natural defect. The increasing population of the fertile lands upon the northern branches of the Hudson, must annually increase the amazing wealth that is conveyed by its waters to New-York. Added to this, the ground has been marked out, the level ascertained, a company incorporated, by the name of the "President, Directors and Company of the Northern Inland Lock Navigation, in the state of New-York," and funds subscribed, for the purpose of cutting a canal from the nearest approximating point of Hudson's river to South Bay, which empties into the south end of Lake Champlaine. The distance is 18 miles. The difference of level and the face of the country are such as to justify a belief, that the opening of this canal will not be less practicable than useful.*

Saranack river rises from several large lakes in the mountains W. of Champlaine, and after a N. E. course of 70 miles, passes into this lake at Plattsburgh. It has a number of falls and rapids, round which are carrying paths. In this river is the greatest abundance of fish, such as salmon, bass, pike, pickerel, trout, &c.

Sable river, not far from the Saranack, is scarcely 60 yards wide. On this stream are remarkable falls. The whole descent of the water is about 200 feet, in several pitches, the greatest of which is 40 feet perpendicular. At the foot of it the water is unfathomable. A large pine has been seen, in a freshet, to reach over endwise, and remain several minutes under water. The stream is confined by high rocks on either side, a space of 40 feet, and the banks at the falls are, at least, as many feet high. In a freshet the flood wood frequently lodges, and in a few minutes the water rises to full banks, and then bursts away its obstructions, with a most tremendous crashing. The Big and Little Chazy rivers are in the township of Champlaine, which borders on the Canada line. Both are navigable some miles, the former 6 or 7, affording good mill-seats. Several mills are already erected. The British had a post, and maintained a small garrison at Point-au-fer, in this township, which was given up, according to treaty.

The river Boquet passes through the town of Willsborough, in Clinton county, and is navigable for boats about two miles, and is there interrupted by falls, on which are mills. At this place are the remains of an entrenchment, thrown up by General Burgoyne.

Black river rises in the high country, near the sources of Canada Creek, which falls into Mohawk river, and takes its course north-west;

* The legislature of New-York, in their session of 1795, ordered that 200 shares in this canal, and the same number of shares in the western canal, should be subscribed in behalf of the state, which renders the completion of these canals, on the original plan, secure, and will serve to hasten their progress.

and then north-east till it discharges itself into Cadaraqui or Iroquois river, not far from Swegauchee. It is said to be navigable for batteaux up to the lower falls, 60 miles, which is distant from the flourishing settlement of Whitestown 25 miles. The whole distance of this river is reckoned at 112 miles.

Mohawk river rises to the northward of Fort Stanwix, about eight miles from Black river, and runs southwardly 20 miles to the fort; then eastward 110 miles, into the Hudson. The produce that is conveyed down this river is landed at Skenectady, and is thence carried by land sixteen miles, over a barren shrub plain, to Albany.*

A canal, opening a lock navigation from the navigable part of Hudson river to Lake Ontario, and the Seneca Lake, was completed in 1797. It is nearly 2 miles in length, and is supplied by a small canal from the Mohawk, which conveys the water to the highest part of the canal, whence it runs into Wood Creek, and the Mohawk again. The locks and canals round the *Little Falls*, 56 miles above Skenectady, were completed in the autumn of 1795, so that boats full loaded now pass them. The perpendicular descent of these falls is 42 feet in the course of one mile. The canal round them is nearly ¾ of a mile in length, almost the whole distance through an uncommonly hard rock. These falls were the principal obstruction to the navigation of the waters of Mohawk river, above Skenectady. The opening of this navigation is a vast acquisition to the commerce of this state. A shore of at least 1000 miles in length is, in consequence of it, washed by boatable waters, exclusive of all the great lakes, and many millions of acres, of excellent tillage land, rapidly settling, are accommodated with water communication for conveying their produce to market.

A traveller of great observation and sound judgment, who obligingly favoured the author with his manuscript journal, after enumerating the various and important improvements in locks and canals, making by this state, on their *northern* and *wetsern* waters, concludes in these words: "On taking a general view of these things, the extensive advantages to be embraced by the measures adopted by this state, and which are now carrying into execution, I cannot help strolling into the uncertain field of conjecture, that some day or other, not far distant from this place, (Albany) will be the seat of a great empire."

The Cohoez, in this river, are a great curiosity. They are three miles from its entrance into the Hudson. The river is about 100 yards wide; the rock, over which it pours as over a mill-dam, extends almost in a line from one side of the river to the other, and is about 30 feet perpendicular height. Including the descent above, the fall is as much as 60 or 70 feet. The rocks below, in some places, are worn many feet deep by the constant friction of the water. The view of this tremendous cataract is diminished by the height of the banks on each side of the river. About a mile below the falls is a bridge, below which the river branches and forms a large island; but two of the mouths may be seen at the same time from the opposite

* A canal from Skenectady to the navigable waters of Hudson is in contemplation.

bank of the Hudson. The branches may be forded at low water, but it is dangerous doing it.

Delaware river rises in Lake Utstayantho, latitude 42° 25′, and takes its course south-west, until it crosses into Pennsylania in latitude 42°. Thence southwardly, dividing New-York from Pennsylvania, until it strikes the north-west corner of New-Jersey, in latitude 41° 24′; and then passes off to sea, through Delaware Bay, having New-Jersey on the east side, and Pennsylvania and Delaware on the west.

Susquehannah East Branch river has its source in lake Otsego, latitude 42° 55′, from which it takes a south-west course. It crosses the line which divides New-York from Pennsylvania three times, the last time near Tyoga Point, where it receives Tyoga river. Batteaux pass to its source; thence to Mohawk river is but 20 miles, capable of good roads.

Tyoga river rises in the Allegany Mountains, in about latitude 42°, runs eastwardly and empties into the Susquehannah at Tyoga Point, in latitude 41° 57′. It is boatable about 50 miles.

Catteraugus Creek is 36 miles W. of Buffaloe Creek, and nearly as large as Genessee river. On its banks are rich and beautiful flats. Six miles from Lake Erie, into which this stream falls, is a village of Seneca Indians. They have made a considerable reserve on this creek.

Seneca river rises in the Seneca country, and runs eastwardly, and in its passage receives the waters of the Seneca and Cayuga lakes, (which lie north and south, 10 or 12 miles apart, each is between 30 and 40 miles in length, and about a mile in breadth) and empties into the Onondaga river, 14 miles above the falls, at a place called Three Rivers. From Three River Point to Onondaga Lake, up Seneca river, is 12 miles. Within half a mile of this lake a salt spring issues from the ground, the water of which is salter than that of the ocean. It constantly emits water in sufficient quantity for works of any extent. It is probable the whole country will be supplied from this spring, and at a very cheap rate. This spring is the property of the state. This river is boatable from the lakes downwards.

Genessee river rises near the source of the Tyoga, and runs northwardly by the Genessee castle and flats, and empties into Lake Ontario 80 miles east of Niagara Fort. On this river is one set of large falls not far from its junction with Lake Ontario. The inhabitants improve these falls to good purpose, by the erection of mills upon them. The river is navigable 10 miles from its mouth to these falls. The descent is 96 feet. In the course of a mile are two other falls. Here also are mills. Thence the river may be ascended in boats 80 miles. On the river are large flats. The state have sold their lands W. of Genessee. They are now possessed by a company of gentlemen in Holland. They have been surveyed, and it is said there are 4,500,000 acres in this tract.

The north-east branch of the Allegany river, heads in the Allegany mountains, near the source of the Tyoga, and runs directly west until it is joined by a larger branch from the southward, which rises near the west branch of the Susquehannah. Their junction is on the line between Pennsylvania and New-York. From this junction, the

river pursues a north-west course, leaving a segment of the river of about 50 miles in length, in the state of New-York, thence it proceeds in a circuitous south-west direction, until it crosses into Pennsylvania. From thence to its entrance into the Missisippi, it has already been described.

There are few fish in the rivers, but in the brooks are plenty of trout; and in the lakes, yellow perch, sun-fish, salmon-trout, cat-fish, and a variety of others.

Wood Creek is a deep, sluggish stream, 3 or 4 yards wide, whose waters are lost in the Oneida Lake. Its channel is crooked; thirteen canals have been cut across so many necks of land to straighten it. About one mile and a half from the lake it unites with Fish Creek, which is 60 yards wide. The Oneida Indians have reserved half a mile on each side of this creek, for 20 miles from its mouth, for the privilege of taking salmon. From the outlet of Oneida Lake, to Three River Point, a most delightful spot, is 18 miles by water, and 8 by land, and is called Onondaga river. Thence it takes the name of Oswego river, 24 miles N. by W. to Lake Ontario. Oswego Falls are 12 miles below Three River Point. Excepting these falls, boats pass from lake Ontario to the head of the Oneida lake; thence through the canal into the Mohawk.

Salmon Creek is a small stream, which rises near a branch of Fish Creek. Excepting a rapid of a mile and a half near the mouth, boats may ascend it within a mile and a half of another creek, which enters the Oneida Lake 2 miles above its outlet. This would be easier, it is thought, than to dig a canal round the falls and rapids of Oswego; it would open a shorter course from Oneida to Ontario lake.

Salmon River is a considerable stream which runs N. into Ontario, navigable two miles, remarkable for the abundance of its salmon. Fifteen miles from its mouth is a perpendicular fall of one hundred and six feet.

Black or Sable River, is a large stream whose general course, for the greater part, is north-westerly, till it mingles with the waters of Ontario. From the head of this river, the natives have a carrying path to the streams, which run north into St. Lawrence.

Moose river is another generous stream, that falls into Lake Ontario. It has its source in a number of small lakes, which are much frequented by Indian canoes in their hunting parties. They find moose, deer and beavers. Thirty-four miles from its mouth, on a small branch, at the outlet of a lake, Mr. John Brown of Providence, has made a settlement, and has erected mills. The vicinity furnishes iron ore.

The Oswegatchee is a considerable river, which, running in a northerly direction, falls into the St. Lawrence. At the mouth a settlement is begun, which bids fair to prosper.

Grass river rises near the main branch of the Oswegatchee, runs N. N. W. about 50 miles, then N. E. 40 miles, and is lost in the St. Lawrence. It is a rapid river, and affords many good mill-seats; near the mouth its banks produce large quantities of hay.

Three miles below this is the mouth of Racket river, a large and strong current. It has its source near that of the Hudson. It has

a portage of one mile to Moose, and one of a mile and a half to Hudson river. This was the route of the Indians formerly, when they assaulted the settlements upon Mohawk and Hudson rivers. From its source this river takes its course north-easterly through three considerable lakes, about 40 miles ; thence its course is N. N. W. through meadows having no timber. Here it receives Fall river, and has fine navigation for 30 miles ; then in the course of 50 miles there are more than 20 falls and rapids, some 20, some 40 feet, and one is 150 feet. The river here is generally 100 yards broad, but in one place it is compressed to 5 feet. The country bordering on this river is rough with mountains and swamps. The timber is fir, spruce and cedar. About 30 miles from its mouth the current becomes gentle, and in a N. E. direction, through an excellent country it enters the St. Lawrence.

Sable river is formed by a number of small branches which rise near the head of the Hudson, among towering mountains whose summits range as far as the eye can reach, presenting nothing but naked rocks, without a shrub or plant ; the very empire of barrenness and desolation. From the S. W. the river enters Lake Champlaine. Twenty miles from its mouth is the township of Jay, a considerable settlement.

From this account of the rivers, it is easy to conceive of the excellent advantages for conveying produce to market from every part of the state.

The settlements made in this state, till about the year 1785, were chiefly upon two narrow oblongs, extending from the city of New-York, east and north. The one east, is Long Island, which is 140 miles long, and narrow, and surrounded by the sea. The one extending north, is about 40 miles in breadth, and bisected by the Hudson. Since the above period, the settlements have extended west of Albany, and the old establishments on Mohawk river, and into the Genessee country, making another oblong bearing west and south-west from Albany. Such is the intersection of the whole state, by the branches of the Hudson, the Delaware, the Susquehannah, and other rivers which have been mentioned, that there are few places throughout its whole extent, that are more than 15 or 20 miles from some boatable or navigable stream.

Bays and Lakes.] York Bay, which is nine miles long and four broad, spreads to the southward before the city of New-York. It is formed by the confluence of the East and Hudson's rivers, and embosoms several small islands, of which Governour's Island is the principal. It communicates with the ocean through the *Narrows*, between Staten and Long Islands, which are scarcely two miles wide. The passage up to New-York, from Sandy Hook, the point of land that extends farthest into the sea, is safe, and not above 20 miles in length. The common navigation is between the east and west banks, in about 22 feet water. There is a light-house at Sandy Hook, on a peninsula from the Jersey shore.

South Bay lies 12 or 15 miles north of the northern bend in Hudson river. At its north end it receives Wood Creek from the south, which is navigable several miles, and lined with fine meadows. Soon

after, it mingles its waters with East Bay, which stretches eastward into Vermont. At Ticonderoga, the waters of Lake George from the south-west, through a large brook, which rolls down a gentle declivity, fall into Lake Champlaine. The waters of Lake George are 100 feet higher than those of Champlaine.

Oneida Lake lies about twenty miles west of Fort Stanwix, and extends westward about thirty miles.

Salt Lake is six miles long, and one broad. It sends its waters into Seneca river, 12 miles above Three River Point. Its saltness is occasioned by salt springs a few rods from its banks, rising in the marsh. Eighty gallons produce a bushel of salt. In one year 50,000 bushels have been made. The state has reserved to itself the springs, and the land a mile wide round the lake; it demands 6 cents for each bushel of salt made here. It sells for 56 cents a bushel. Boats come within four rods of the works.

Lake Otsego, at the head of Susquehannah river, is about nine miles long, and narrow, perhaps not more than a mile wide. The land on the banks of this lake is very good, and the cultivation of it easy.

Caniaderago Lake is nearly as large as Lake Otsego, and six miles west of it. A stream, by the name of Oaks Creek, issues from it and falls into the Susquehannah river, about five miles below Otsego. The best cheese in the state of New-York is said to be made upon this Creek.

Chatoque Lake is the source of Conawongo river, which empties into the Allegany. The lower end of it, whence the river proceeds, is in latitude 42° 10′; from thence to its head, is about 25 miles. From the north-west part of this to Lake Erie, is 9 miles, and was once a communication used by the French. The Holland company have cut a road across this portage to carry stones from Lake Erie to Allegany river. The land for 15 miles west of Chatoque river is very fertile.

Oswegatchee Lake is a considerable body of water in Oneida county, not far from St. Lawrence. One branch of Oswegatchee river passes through this lake.

On the north side of the mountains, in Orange county, is a very valuable tract called the *Drowned Lands*, containing about 40 or 50,000 acres. The waters, which descend from the surrounding hills, being but slowly discharged by the river issuing from it, cover these vast meadows every winter and render them extremely fertile; but they expose the inhabitants in the vicinity to intermittents. The Wallkill river which passes through this extensive *amphibious* tract, and empties into Hudson river, is, in the spring, stored with very large eels in great plenty. The bottom of this river is a broken rock; and it is supposed, that for 2000l. the channel might be deepened so as to let off all the waters from the meadows, and thereby redeem from the floods a large tract of rich land, for grass, hemp, and Indian corn.

Roads.] The roads in this state have been neglected till within a few years past. The legislature, convinced of the importance of attending to the matter, and perhaps stimulated by the enterprising and active Pensylvanians, who are competitors for the trade of the

western country, have lately granted very liberal sums, towards improving those roads that traverse the most settled parts of the country, and opening such as lead into the western and northern parts of the state, uniting as far as possible the establishments on the Hudson river, and the most populous parts of the interior country by the nearest practicable distances. Turnpikes have been made in various parts of the state, one extending from the western part of Massachusetts, through Albany, Schenectady, Utica, to Canandaqua. Post offices are established at convenient distances from Albany to Genessee river, a distance of about 233 miles, by means of which a safe and direct conveyance is opened between the interior parts of the United States, to the west, and the several states in the union.

A great road was opened through Clinton county, which borders upon Canada, in the year 1790, under the direction of a Mr. Rogers, of Dutchess county, and after him called Rogers's road. This road adds greatly to the convenience and safety of travelling between the state of New-York and Canada, especially in the winter, when passing the Lakes on ice is often dangerous and always uncomfortable.

A road also has been lately cut from Katt's Kill, on the Hudson, westwardly, which passes near Owasco Lake.

Bridges and Turnpikes.] A bridge called Staat's Bridge, 250 feet long and of a sufficient width to admit two carriages abreast, has lately been thrown across Abram's Creek, which falls into Hudson's river, near the city of Hudson, by which a communication with the country, in a new direction, is opened from the city of Hudson; and a distance saved of 4 or 5 miles in the main post road from New-York to Albany.

A bridge over the sprouts of Mohawk river was finished in 1795. It is about 10 miles north of the city of Albany, and opens an easy and direct communication with an extensive and thriving country to the north-west. It is 960 feet in length, 24 in breadth, and 15 above the bed of the river, which for the most part is rock. It is supported by *thirteen* solid stone pillars, and makes a fine appearance as you approach it from the south. About a mile west of the bridge are the falls called the Cohoez, in full view, forming a grand spectacle to the eye of the traveller; while on the east a different scene is presented, the river below the bridge spreading into three branches, and pouring its waters into the Hudson by as many mouths.

Cayuga bridge is erected over Cayuga lake on the great road from Albany to Niagara. It is laid on 210 trestles, each consists of three posts, connected by 4 girts and 4 braces. The posts are sunk through the mud to the hard gravel, which is generally about 30 feet below the surface of the water. They are 25 feet apart. Its length, including the abutments, is one mile. It was built by a company, who receive a toll. The expense was about 20,000 dollars. A turnpike road is making from Whitestown to this bridge, which is designed to be continued on to Niagara.

A very respectable bridge has lately been built over Harlaem Creek, at Morrissania, by Mr. John B. Coles, merchant, New-York.

At Fort Stanwix, now Fort Schuyler, is a bridge over the Mohawk river, about 120 feet in length, in one arch, extending from shore to

shore. About 50 miles above Skenectady is another bridge across this river of a similar construction, having an arch of one hundred feet.

Face of the Country, Mountains, Soil and Productions. This state, to speak generally, is intersected by ridges of mountains running in a north-east and south-west direction. Beyond the Allegany mountains, however, the country is a dead level, of a fine rich soil, covered in its natural state, with maple, beach, birch, cherry, black walnut, locust, hickory and some mulberry trees. On the banks of Lake Erie, are a few chesnut and oak ridges. Hemlock swamps are interspersed thinly through the country. All the creeks that empty into Lake Erie, have falls, which afford many excellent mill-seats. The country W. of Whitestown is agreeably variegated with moderate hills and vales; flourishing settlements extend beyond Genessee river. The people are enterprising and industrious. This whole region is well watered; the soil is very rich; the timber most common is beech and sugar maple.

The lands between the Seneca and Cayuga Lakes, are represented as uncommonly excellent, being most agreeably diversified with gentle risings, and timbered with lofty trees, with little under-wood. The legislature of this state have granted one million and a half acres of land as a gratuity to the officers and soldiers of the line of this state. This tract, forming the new county of Onondaga, is bounded west, by the east shore of the Seneca Lake, and the Massachusetts lands in the county of Ontario; north, by part of Lake Ontario near Fort Oswego; south, by a ridge of the Allegany mountains and the Pennsylvania line; and east, by the Tuscarora Creek (which falls nearly in the middle of the Oneida Lake) and that part of Montgomery, which has been settling by the New-England people very rapidly since the peace.

This pleasant country is divided into 25 townships of 60,000 acres each, which are again subdivided into 100 convenient farms, of 600 acres, making in the whole 2,500 farms.

East of the Allegany mountains, the country is broken into hills with rich intervening vallies. The hills are clothed thick with timber, and when cleared afford fine pasture; the vallies, when cultivated, produce wheat, hemp, flax, peas, grass, oats, Indian corn, &c.

Besides the trees already mentioned, there are in various parts of the state, the several kinds of oak, such as white, red, yellow, black, and chesnut oak; spruce, white, yellow, and pitch pines; cedar, fir tree, butternut, aspin, commonly called poplar, white-wood, which in Pennsylvania is called poplar, and in Europe the tulip tree, rock maple, the linden tree, which, with the white wood, grows on the low, rich ground, the button-wood, shrub cranberry, the fruit of which hangs in clusters like grapes as large as cherries; this shrub too grows on low ground. Besides these is the sumach, which bears clusters of red berries; the Indians chew the leaves instead of tobacco; the berries are used in dying. Of the commodities produced from culture, wheat is the staple. Of this article about one million bushels are yearly exported in wheat and flour. Indian corn and peas are likewise raised for exportation; and rye, oats, barley, &c. for home consumption.

In some parts of the state large dairies are kept, which furnish for the market butter and cheese. The best lands in this state, which lie along the Mohawk river, and north of it, and west of the Allegany mountains, are yet mostly in a state of nature, but are most rapidly settling.

The county of Clinton in the most northern part of the state, on Lake Champlaine, and Lake George, lies about midway between Quebeck and New-York, and from 230 to 240 miles from each, and, in 1790, was settled by about 2000 inhabitants. There were, in 1796, in this county* 624 electors and probably about 6,000 souls. A great proportion of the lands is of an excellent quality, and they produce in abundance the various kinds of grain cultivated in other parts of the state. The inhabitants manufacture earthen ware, pot and pearl-ash, in large quantities, which they export to New-York or Quebeck. Their wool is of a better quality than that which is produced in more southern climates, their beef and pork are second to none; and the price of stall-fed beef in Montreal (distant 60 miles from Plattsburg) is such as to encourage the farmers to drive their cattle to that market. Their forests supply them with sugar and molasses, as every family, with no more implements than are necessary for common use, can make a sufficiency for its own consumption, and that at a season when the farmer can be no otherwise employed. The soil is well adapted to the culture of hemp. The land carriage from any part of the country, in transporting their produce to New-York, does not exceed 18 miles. The carrying place at Ticonderoga is one mile and a half, and from Fort George at the south end of the lake of the same name, to Fort Edward, is but 14 miles; after which there are two or three small obstructions by falls, which are about to be removed by the proprietors of the northern canal. From this county to Quebeck are annually sent large rafts; the rapids at St. John's and Chamblee being the only interruptions in the navigation, and those not so great but that, at some seasons, batteaux with sixty bushels of salt can ascend them. At this distance from sea, salt is sold at half a dollar a bushel.

In the northern and unsettled parts of the state, are a plenty of moose, deer, some beavers, martins, and most other inhabitants of the forest, except wolves. Ducks, growse, pigeons, and fish of many kinds, and particularly salmon, are taken in great abundance in different parts, and especially in the county of Clinton. At the mouth of Saranack river, which falls into Champlaine, the salmon are found in such plenty, that it is usual to take 4 or 500 in a day with spears and small scoop nets. They are caught from May till November, and make excellent salted provisions, and every cottager, by spending an hour in the evening, may obtain a sufficient supply for his family.

Population and Character.] For the population of this state, according to the census of 1800, the reader is referred to the table of divisions. In 1786 the number of inhabitants was 238,897, of which 18,889 were blacks. In 1756 there were 96,775 inhabitants, including 13,542 blacks. The average annual increase of in-

* This county has since been divided.

habitants in this state, from 1756 to 1786, was 4,554. The annual increase for the four years succeeding 1786, was upwards of 25,000. A great proportion of this increase consists of emigrants from the New-England states.

The effects of the revolution have been as greatly and as happily felt by this, as by any of the United States. The accession of inhabitants within a few years has been great, even beyond calculation; and so long as lands can be obtained upon advantageous terms, and with a good title, and the general government continues to protect industry and encourage commerce, so long they will continue to increase. The new settlements that are forming in the northern and western parts of the state, are principally by people from New-England. It is remarkable that the Dutch enterprize few or no settlements. Among all the new townships that have been settled since the peace, (and they have been astonishingly numerous) it is not known that one has been settled by the Dutch.

The English language is generally spoken throughout the state, but is not a little corrupted by the Dutch dialect, which is still spoken in some counties, particularly in King's, Ulster, Albany, and that part of Orange which lies south of the mountains. But as Dutch schools are almost, if not wholly discontinued, that language in a few generations, will probably cease to be used at all. And the increase of English schools has already had a perceptible effect in the improvement of the English language.

The manners of the people differ as well as their language. The ancestors of the inhabitants in the eastern and middle parts of Long-Island, were either natives of England or the immediate descendants of the first settlers of New-England, and their manners and customs are similar to those of their ancestors. The counties inhabited by the Dutch, have adopted the English manners in a great degree, but still retain many modes, particularly in their religion, which are peculiar to the Hollanders. They are industrious, neat and economical in the management of their farms and their families. Whatever business they pursue, they generally follow the old track of their forefathers, and seldom invent any new improvements in agriculture, manufactures or mechanicks. They were the first settlers of this state, and were particularly friendly to the English colony that settled at Plymouth in New-England, in 1620; and continued to be amicably disposed towards the English colonies east of them, until the unhappy dispute arose concerning the lands on Connecticut river.

The revolution and its consequences have had a very perceptible influence on a great part of the people in this state. Many, who had been tenants, became freeholders, and experienced as great elevation of mind, as of circumstances; a spirit of liberality was diffused among the Dutch, the clouds of ignorance and national prejudice were dispelled. Schools, academies and colleges are established and establishing for the education of their children, in the English and learned languages, and in the arts and sciences, and a literary and scientifick spirit is evidently increasing. If such are the buddings of improvement in the dawn of our empire, what a rich harvest may we expect in its meridian.

The city of New-York is inhabited principally by merchants, physicians, lawyers, mechanicks, shopkeepers and tradesmen, composed of almost all nations and religions. They are generally respectable in their several professions, and sustain the reputation of honest, punctual, fair dealers.

The manners and character of the inhabitants of every colony or state, will take their colouring, in a greater or less degree, from the peculiar manners of the first settlers. It is much more natural for emigrants to a settlement to adopt the customs of the original inhabitants, than the contrary, even though the emigrants should, in length of time, become the most numerous. Hence it is that the neatness, parsimony and industry of the Dutch were early imitated by the first English settlers in this province, and, until the revolution, formed a distinguishing trait in their provincial character. It is still discernible, though in a much less degree, and will probably continue visible for many years to come.

Besides the Dutch and English already mentioned, there are in this state many emigrants from Scotland, Ireland, Germany, and some few from France. Many Germans are settled on the Mohawk, and some Scotch people on the Hudson, in the county of Washington. The principal part of the two former settled in the city of New-York, and retain the manners, the religion, and some of them the language of their respective countries. The French emigrants settled principally at New-Rochelle and on Staten Island, and their descendants, several of them, now fill some of the highest offices in the United States.

Chief Towns.] There are three incorporated cities in this state; New-York, Albany and Hudson.

New-York is the capital of the state, and stands on the south-west point of Manhattan, commonly called New-York island, at the confluence of the Hudson and East rivers. The principal part of the city lies on the east side of the island, although the buildings extend from one river to the other. The length of the city on East river is above two miles and fast increasing; but falls short of that distance on the banks of the Hudson. Its breadth, on an average, is a mile; and its circumference between 5 and 6 miles. The plan of the city is not perfectly regular, but is laid out with reference to the situation of the ground. The ground which was unoccupied before the peace of 1783, was laid out in parallel streets of convenient width, which has had a good effect upon the parts of the city lately built. The principal streets run nearly parallel with the rivers. These are intersected, though not at right angles, by streets running from river to river. In the width of the streets there is a great diversity. Water-street and Pearl-street, which occupy the banks of East river, are very conveniently situated for business, but they are low and too narrow; not admitting in some places of walks on the sides for foot passengers. Broad-street, extending from the exchange to the city hall, is sufficiently wide. This was originally built on each side of the creek, which penetrated almost to the city hall. This street is low but pleasant. But the most convenient and agreeable part of the city is the Broadway. It begins at a point which is formed by the junction

of the Hudson and East rivers, occupies the height of land between them, upon a true meridional line, rises gently to the northward, is nearly 70 feet wide, adorned where the fort formerly stood, (which has been levelled) with an elegant brick edifice for the accommodation of the governour of the state, and a publick walk from the extremity of the point, occupying the ground of the lower battery, which is now demolished: Also with a large, handsome building, of 100 feet in front, 80 feet deep, and four stories high, intended for a city hotel, and publick rooms, built on a Tontine plan; and with two Episcopal churches, one of which (Trinity church) has an excellent chime of bells; and a number of elegant private buildings. It terminates to the northward, in a triangular area, fronting the bridewell and alms-house, and commands from any point, a view of the Bay and *Narrows*.

Since the year 1788, that part of the city, which was buried in ruins, during the war, has been rapidly re-building, the streets widened, straightened, raised in the middle under an angle sufficient to carry off the water to the side gutters, and foot-ways of brick made on each side. At this time, the part that was destroyed by fire is all covered with elegant brick houses.

Wall-street is generally 50 feet wide and elevated, and the buildings elegant. Two elegant buildings for the banks adorn this beautiful street: Hanover-square and Dock-street are conveniently situated for business, and the houses well built. William-street is also elevated and convenient, and is the principal market for retailing dry goods. Front-street, on the East River, is a wide and spacious street, as is Greenwich-street on the North River. Many of the other streets are pleasant, but most of them are irregular and narrow.

The houses most of them are built of brick, and the roofs tiled. There are remaining a few houses built after the old Dutch manner; but the English taste has prevailed almost a century.

Upon the south-west point of the land, a fort with four bastions, formerly stood, and also a battery below. The area of the fort contained an elegant house for the accommodation of the royal governours, and was consumed by fire in Gov. Tryon's time. This fort and battery were removed in 1791, and the scite converted into a mall.

The most magnificent edifice in this city is *Federal Hall*, situated on the N. E. side of Wall-street, fronting Broad-street, where it appears to great advantage. In the gallery of this Hall our late beloved PRESIDENT WASHINGTON, attended by the senate and house of representatives, took his oath of office in the face of Heaven, and in presence of a large concourse of people assembled in front, on the 30th of April, 1789, at the commencement of the operation of the Federal Constitution.

Since the removal of Congress, for whose accomodation it was built, it has been occupied by the state legislature, and by the courts.

New-York State Prison is situated at Greenwich, about two miles distant from the southernmost point of the city, upon a lot of about four acres, on the east bank of Hudson river, and inclosed by a wall from 16 to 20 feet high. The building comprehends the following subdivisions and apartments: 1. In the centre facing Green-

which-street, and in the rear facing the river, is the building containing the apartments for the accommodation of the keeper and his assistants, and rooms for the use of the inspectors, &c. its dimensions being sixty-four feet square, and in the rear a spacious hall. 2. Adjoining the foregoing, on each side fronting the street, is a building of the same height with the centre, each of which contains thirty prisons capable of containing, each, six prisoners for lodging. 3. Adjoining, and extending westerly on the northerly side, is a building of about 56 feet in length and 36 feet in breadth, intended for a place of worship for the prisoners. On the southerly side is a building of the same dimensions, intended for the hospital and dining apartments; adjoining to, and extending westerly are two other sets of prisons of equal size with those in front. To complete the plan, there will be solitary cells at the end of the last described prisons, each of which is calculated to contain eight persons in solitude. Within the walls, work-shops are erected, in which the prisoners are employed at hard labour. The whole of the buildings will shew a front and rear of about 307 feet. The whole is built of hard stone. The walls are thick. The prison grates are of stout iron bars, steeled and hardened. The height of the whole, except the solitary cells, is three stories; the lower one being sunk three feet below the surface, is ten feet from the floor to the ceiling. The two other stories are thirteen feet and a half each, between the floor and ceiling. The building is covered with slate, and in the centre, over a handsome pediment, is an elegant cupola, which commands a pleasing view of all the vessels passing to and from the city through the Narrows, and down as far as Sandy Hook, and also for some considerable distance up Hudson river.

The other publick buildings in the city are, 3 Dutch churches, 4 Presbyterian, 2 Associated Reformed Scotch churches, 1 Associated Scotch church, 5 Episcopal churches, 2 for German Lutherans and Calvinists, 3 for Methodists, 1 Moravian, 2 for Baptists, 1 Roman Catholick, 1 French Protestant, and 1 Jews' synagogue. The New-York hospital, a noble building. The state have granted about 4,000l. a year for the support of it: It has also other funds. About 500 patients are received into it annually. The government is in the hands of 25 governours, who are annually chosen, and are incorporated. Besides these, there is the governour's house, already mentioned, a handsome building, the college, gaol, and several other buildings of less note. The city is accomodated with four markets in different parts, which are furnished with a great plenty and variety of provisions in neat and excellent order. Upwards of 140 different species of eatable animals, exclusive of tame birds and quadrupeds, are to be obtained in the markets of the city of New-York. There are here offered for sale 62 kinds of fish; 14 of shell-fish, 5 of amphibious, 51 of birds, eight of quadrupeds. There are very commodious docks and basons on the North river for the reception of shipping.

The government of the city (which was incorporated in 1696) is now in the hands of a mayor, aldermen and common council. The city is divided into wards, in each of which there is chosen annually, by the people, an alderman and an assistant, who, together with the recorder, are appointed yearly by the council of appointment.

The mayor's court, which is held from time to time by adjournment, has been in high reputation, as a court of law. A court of sessions is likewise held for the trial of criminal causes.

The situation of the city is both healthy and pleasant. Surrounded on all sides by water, it is refreshed with cool breezes in summer, and the air in winter is more temperate than in other places under the same parallel.

This city is esteemed the most eligible situation for commerce in the United States. It almost necessarily commands the trade of one half New-Jersey, most of that of Connecticut, part of that of Massachusetts, part of that of New-Hampshire, and almost the whole of Vermont, besides the whole fertile interior country, which is penetrated by one of the largest rivers in America. This city imports most of the goods consumed between a line of 30 miles east of Connecticut river, and 20 miles west of the Hudson, which is 130 miles; and between the ocean and the confines of Canada, about 400 miles; a considerable portion of which is the best peopled of any part of the United States; and the whole territory contains nearly one million people, or one fifth of the inhabitants of the union. Besides, some of the other states are partially supplied with goods from New-York. But in the staple commodity, flour, Pennsylvania and Maryland have exceeded it, the superfine flour of those states commanding a higher price than that of New-York; not that the quality of the grain is worse, but because greater attention is paid in those states to the inspection and manufacture of that article.

In the manufacture likewise of iron, paper, cabinet works, &c. Pennsylvania exceeds not only New-York, but all her sister states. In times of peace however, New-York will command more commercial business than any town in the United States. In time of war it will be insecure, without a marine force; but a small number of ships will be able to defend it from the most formidable attacks by sea.

A want of good water has been a great inconvenience to the citizens; there being few wells in the city. Most of the people were till lately supplied every day with fresh water, conveyed to their doors in casks, from a pump near the head of Queen-street, which receives it from a spring almost a mile from the centre of the city. This well is about 20 feet deep and four feet diameter. The average quantity drawn daily from this remarkable well, was 110 hogsheads of 130 gallons each. In some hot summer days 216 hogsheads have been drawn from it; and what is very singular, there is never more or less than about three feet water in the well. The water was sold commonly at three pence a hogshead at the pump. The Manhattan company, incorporated in 1798, now supply the citizens with water by pipes.

On a general view of this city, as described 60 years ago, and in its present state, the comparison is flattering to the present age; particularly the improvements in taste, elegance of manners, and that easy unaffected civility and politeness which form the happiness of social intercourse.

It is found, by a memorandum in one of the old registers, that the number of inhabitants in the city, taken by order of the king in the

year 1697, was 4302. The number of inhabitants in the city and county of New-York, in 1756, was 10,881 ; 1771, 21,863 ; 1786, 23,614 ; 1790, 33,131 ; in 1800, 60,489.

Albany is situated on the west bank of Hudson river, 160 miles north of the city of New-York, to which it is next in rank, and 340 S. of Quebeck. N. lat. 42° 39′ W. lon. 73° 30′. This city and suburbs, by enumeration in 1797, contained 1263 buildings, of which 863 were dwelling-houses, and 6021 inhabitants. Many of them are in the Gothick style, with the gable end to the street. Its inhabitants are collected from various parts of the world, and speak a great variety of languages, but the English predominates ; and the use of every other is gradually lessening. When the contemplated locks and canals are completed, and convenient roads opened into every part of the country, which are in great part accomplished, Albany will probably increase in a more rapid degree. The publick buildings are, a Low Dutch church, of ancient and very curious construction, now disused, and a mere monument of ancient architecture, a new and elegant Dutch church, of brick, one for Episcopalians, two for Presbyterians, one for Germans, or high Dutch, one for Methodists, one for Roman Catholicks ; an hospital, city hall, and a handsome brick gaol. The corporation consists of a mayor, recorder, six aldermen, and as many assistants. The improvements in this city, within a few years past, have been very great in almost all respects. Wharves have been built on the river, the streets have been paved, a bank instituted, a new and handsome style of building introduced, and excellent water is conducted into the various parts of the city, from a fine spring five miles west of the city. For these improvements the inhabitants are indebted to the patriotick exertions of a very few gentlemen. One mile north of this city, in its suburbs, near the manor house of the late lieutenant-governour Van Renssalaer, are very ingeniously constructed extensive and useful works, for the manufacture of Scotch and rappee snuff, roll and cut tobacco of different kinds, chocolate, mustard, starch, hair-powder, split pease, and hulled barley. These valuable works are the property of Mr James Caldwell, who unfortunately lost a complete set of similar works, by fire, in July, 1794, with the stock, valued at 37,500 dollars. It is a circumstance worthy of remark, and is evincive of the industry and enterprize of the proprietor, that the whole of the present buildings and machinery were begun and completed in the short space of eleven months. These works are decidedly superior to any of the kind in America. All the articles above enumerated, even to the spinning of tobacco, are manufactured by the aid of water machinery. For the invention of this machinery the proprietor has obtained a patent. These works give employment and subsistence to 40 poor boys, and a number of workmen. Men who make such efforts to advance American manufactures, deserve well of their country. In the year 1609, Henry Hudson, whose name the river bears, ascended it in his boat to Aurania, the spot on which Albany now stands. The settlement of this city commenced about the year 1612, and next to Jamestown in Virginia, is the oldest in the United States. It was called Beverwyck till 1623, then Fort Orange till 1647, then Williamstadt till 1664, when it received the name of Albany. All

this time it had the nick name of the Fuyck, and did not lose the name of Fort Orange, especially with foreigners. Fort Orange was built in 1623. [*Yates' MS. Let.*]

At Bath, opposite this city, a bathing-house has lately been erected, divided into four apartments, in which the visitants may be accommodated at pleasure, with a warm, cold, or shower bath, only by the turning of a cock.

A bank was established here in 1794. The government of the city, which was incorporated in 1686, is invested in a Mayor and Aldermen.

Hudson city is situated on the east side of Hudson river, in lat. 42° 14′ and is 132 miles north of New-York; 30 miles south of Albany, and 4 miles west from old Claverack Town. It is surrounded by an extensive and fertile back country, and, in proportion to its size and population, carries on a large trade. In 1783, Messrs. Seth and Thomas Jenkins, from Providence, in the state of Rhode-Island, having first reconnoitred all the way up the river, fixed on the unsettled spot where Hudson now stands, for a town. To this spot they found the river was navigable for vessels of any size. They purchased a tract of about a mile square bordering on the river, with a large bay to the southward, and divided it into 30 parcels or shares. Other adventurers were admitted to proportions, and the town was laid out in squares, formed by spacious streets, crossing each other at right angles. Each square contains 30 lots, two deep, divided by a 20 feet alley; each lot is 50 feet in front and 120 feet in depth.

In the spring of 1784, several houses and stores were erected. The increase of the town from this period to the spring of 1786, was astonishingly rapid, and reflects great honour upon the enterprizing and persevering spirit of the original founders. In the space of time just mentioned, 150 dwelling-houses, besides shops, barns and other buildings, four ware-houses, several wharves, spermaceti-works, a rope-walk, and one of the best distilleries in America, were erected, and 1500 souls collected on a spot, which three years before, was improved as a farm, and but two years before began to be built. Its increase since has been considerable, though by no means in the same proportion. A printing-office has been established, and a bank, called Columbia Bank, with a capital of 160,000 dollars; and several publick buildings have been erected, besides dwelling-houses, stores, &c. The inhabitants are plentifully and conveniently supplied with water, brought to their cellars in wooden pipes, from a spring two miles from the town. It stands on an eminence from which are extensive and delightful views to the north-west, north, and round that way to the south-east, consisting of hills and vallies, variegated with woods and orchards, corn-fields and meadows, with the river, which, in most places is a mile over, and may be seen a considerable distance to the northward, forming a number of bays and creeks. From the south-east to the south-west, the city is screened with hills at different distances, and west afar off over the river, and a large valley, the prospect is bounded by a chain of stupendous mountains, called the Katt's Kill, running to the west-north-west, which add magnificence and sublimity to the whole scene.

Upwards of 1200 sleighs entered the city daily, for several days together, in February, 1786, loaded with grain of various kinds, boards, shingles, staves, hoops, iron-ware, stone for building, firewood, and sundry articles of provisions for the market, from which some idea may be formed of the advantage of its situation, with respect to the country adjacent, which is every way extensive and fertile, particularly westward. The original proprietors of Hudson, offered to purchase a tract of land adjoining the south part of the city of Albany, and were constrained, by a refusal of the proposition, to become competitors for the commerce of the northern country, when otherwise they would have added great wealth and consequence to Albany.

The city is governed by a mayor, recorder, aldermen and asistants. It has in the city and township 3664 inhabitants.

Poughkeepsie is the shire town of Dutchess county, and is situated upon the east side of Hudson river, and north of Wapping kill or creek. It is a pleasant little town, and has frequently been the seat of the state government, and has 3246 inhabitants.

Lansinburg, formerly called the New City, stands on the east side of the Hudson, just opposite the south branch of Mohawk river, and 10 miles north of Albany. It is a very flourishing place, pleasantly situated on a plain at the foot of a hill, and has 250 dwelling-houses, 4926 inhabitants.

Troy, seven miles north of Albany, is a thriving place of 200 houses. Vessels of considerable burden pass up to this place.

Kingston is the county town of Ulster. Before it was burnt by the British, in 1777, it contained about 200 houses, regularly built on an elevated dry plain, at the mouth of a little pleasant stream, called Esopus kill or creek, that empties into the Hudson ; but is nearly two miles west from the river. The town has been rebuilt.

Skenectady is 16 miles north-west of Albany, in Albany county, situated on the banks of the Mohawk river. The town is compact and regular, and has about 300 houses built of brick, excepting a few in the old Dutch style, on a rich flat of low land, surrounded with hills. The windings of the river through the town, and the fields, which are often overflowed in the spring, afford a beautiful prospect about harvest time. As it is at the foot of navigation on the long river, which passes through a very fertile country, one would suppose it to embrace much of the commerce of it ; but originally knowing no other than the fur trade, since the revolution the place has decayed, and no advantage has been taken of its happy situation. Union college was established here in the year 1794. In 1800, it contained 5289 inhabitants.

Plattsburg is an extensive township in Clinton county, situated on the west margin of Lake Champlaine. From the south part of the town, the mountains tend away wide from the lake, and leave a charming tract of excellent land, of a rich loam, well watered, and about an equal proportion suitable for meadow and for tillage. The land rises in a gentle ascent for several miles from the lake, of which every farm will have a delightful view. A few years ago, this township and the whole county, indeed, which at present contains several thousand inhabitants, was a wilderness ; now they have a house for

publick worship, a court-house and gaol; the courts of common pleas and general sessions of the peace, sit here twice in a year; they have artizans of almost every kind among them, and furnish among themselves all the materials for building, glass excepted. Polite circles may here be found, and the genteel traveller be entertained with the luxuries of a sea-port, a tune on the harpsichord, and a philosophical conversation. This, with many other instances of the kind, serve to verify a prophetick remark, in a letter of Congress to their constituents, written in a time of gloomy despondency, to the following purport: "Vast lakes and rivers, scarcely known or explored, whose waters have rolled for ages in silence and obscurity to the ocean, and extensive wildernesses of fertile soil, the dwelling place of savage beasts, shall yet hear the din of industry, become subservient to commerce, and boast delightful villas, gilded spires and spacious cities, rising on their banks, and fields loaded with the fruit of cultivation."

Agriculture and Manufactures.] New-York, till lately, has been considerably behind her neighbours in New-England, New-Jersey and Pennsylvania, in point of improvements in agriculture and manufactures. Among other reasons of this deficiency, that of want of enterprize in the inhabitants was not the least. Indeed, their local advantages have been such as that they have grown rich without enterprize. Besides, lands have hitherto been cheap, and farms of course large; and it requires much less ingenuity to raise 1000 bushels of wheat upon 60 acres of land, than to raise the same quantity upon 30 acres. So long therefore as the farmer in New-York could have 60 acres of land, to raise 1000 bushels of wheat, he would never trouble himself to find out how he could raise the same quantity upon half the land. It is population alone that stamps a value upon lands, and lays a foundation for high improvements in agriculture. When a man is obliged to maintain a family on a small farm, his invention is exercised to find out every improvement that may render it more productive. This appears to be the great reason why the lands on Delaware and Connecticut rivers, produce to the farmer twice as much clear profit, as lands in equal quantity and of the same quality upon the Hudson. If the preceding observations be just, improvements will keep pace with population and the increasing value of lands. Another cause which heretofore operated in preventing agricultural improvements in this state, was their government, which, in the manner it was conducted until the revolution, was extremely unfavourable to improvements of almost every kind, and particularly in agriculture. The governours were many of them land-jobbers, bent on making their fortunes; and being invested with power to do this, they either engrossed for themselves, or patented away to their particular favourites, a very great proportion of the whole province. This proved an effectual bar to population, and of course, kept down the price of lands, and so prevented improvements in agriculture. It ought to be observed in this connexion, that these overgrown estates could be cultivated only by the hands of tenants, who, having no right in the soil, and no certain prospect of continuing upon the farm which they held at the will of their landlord, had no motives to make those expensive

improvements, which, though not immediately productive, would prove very profitable in some future period. The tenant, dependent on his landlord for his annual support, confines his views and improvements to the present year; while the independent freeholder, secure of his estate for himself and his successors, carries his views into futurity, and early lays the foundation for growing improvement. But these obstacles have been removed, in a great measure, by the revolution. The genius of the government of this state, however, still favours large monopolies of lands, which have for some years back been granted without regard either to quantity or settlement. The fine fertile country of the Mohawk, which was formerly possessed by Sir William Johnson, and other land-jobbers, who were enemies to their country, has been forfeited to the state, and is now divided into freehold estates, and settling with astonishing rapidity.

The foregoing observations will in a great measure account for the great neglect of manufactural improvements. Mr. Smith, in his history of New-York, observed, "It is much owing to the disproportion between the number of our inhabitants, and the vast tracts still remaining to be settled, that we have not as yet, entered upon scarcely any other manufactures, than such as are indispensably necessary for our home convenience." This same cause has operated ever since, in the same way, though not, of late, in the same degree.

Great improvements in agriculture cannot be expected (unless they are made by a few individuals who have a particular genius for that business) so long as lands are plenty and cheap; and improvements in manufactures never precede but invariably follow improvements in agriculture. These observations apply more particularly to the country. The city of New-York contains a great number of people, who are employed in various kinds of manufactures. Among many other articles manufactured in this city are wheel-carriages of all kinds, loaf-sugar, bread, beer, shoes and boots, saddlery, cabinet-work, cutlery, hats, wool cards, clocks, watches, potters' ware, umbrellas, all kinds of mathematical and musical instruments, ships, and every thing necessary for their equipment. Glass-works, and several iron-works, have been established in different parts of the country, but they never till lately have been very productive, owing solely to the want of workmen, and the high price of labour, its necessary consequence. The glass-works, situated 10 miles west of Albany, on a fine stream of water, and in the midst of a pine plain covered with wood, and the iron-works erected in the neighbourhood, constitute one of the most extensive factories, perhaps, in America. They consist of one large new glass-house, and one old one, a saw-mill, pounding-mill, and a cross-cut-mill. The manufacturers live around the works, constituting a little village of about 30 houses. These works, with about 1300 acres of land adjoining, are the property of three enterprizing and publick spirited gentlemen. They work three large furnaces, and employ about 13 glass-blowers, making on an average 20,000 feet of glass a month, besides bottles and flint-glass. The proprietors have substituted *kelp* instead of *pearl-ashes* in the manufacture of glass. The adventurers in this expensive and patriotick undertaking, we are encouraged to hope, will meet with

success answerable to their expectations and their merit. The internal resources and advantages for manufactories, such as ore, wood, water, hearth-stone, proper situations for bloomeries, forges and all kinds of water-works, are immense. There are several paper-mills in the state, which are worked to advantage. The manufacture of maple-sugar, within a few years past, has become an object of great importance. As many as 300 chests of 400lb. each, were made in the thinly inhabited county of Otsego, in the year 1791 ; besides large quantities, sufficient for home consumption, in other newly settled parts of the state.

Trade.] The situation of New-York, with respect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the states. It has at all seasons of the year a short and easy access to the ocean. We have already mentioned that it commands the trade of a great proportion of the best settled, and best cultivated parts of the United States. New-York has not been unmindful of her superior local advantages, but has availed herself of them to their full extent.

Their exports to the West-Indies are, biscuit, peas, Indian corn, apples, onions, boards, staves, horses, sheep, butter, cheese, pickled oysters, beef and pork. But wheat is the staple commodity of the state, of which no less than 677,700 bushels were exported so long ago as the year 1775, besides 2,555 tons of bread, and 2,828 tons of flour. The increase since has been in proportion to the increase of the population. Inspectors of flour are appointed to prevent impositions, and to see that none is exported but that which is deemed by them merchantable. West-India goods are received in return for these articles. Besides the above mentioned articles, are exported flax-seed, cotton wool, sarsaparilla, coffee, indigo, rice, pig-iron, bar-iron, pot-ash, pearl-ash, furs, deer-skins, logwood, fustick, mahogany, bees-wax, oil, Madeira wine, rum, tar, pitch, turpentine, whale-fins, fish, sugars, molasses, salt, tobacco, lard, &c. ; but most of these articles are imported for re-exportation. The trade of this state has greatly increased since the revolution, and the balance, is almost constantly in its favour. The exports to foreign parts, for the year ending September 30, 1791, &c. consisting principally of the articles above enumerated, amounted as follows :

	Dolls. cts.		Dolls.
In 1791, to	2,505,465 10	In 1796, to	12,208,027
1792,	2,535,790 25	1797,	13,308,064
1793,	2,932,370 00	1798,	14,300,892
1794,	5,442,183 10	1799,	18,719,527
1795,	10,304,580 78	1804,	16,081,281

In 1798, 155,434$\frac{70}{95}$ tons of shipping belonged to this state. This state owned in 1792, 46,626 tons of shipping, besides which she finds employment for about 40,000 tons of foreign vessels.

The following statement shews the amazing increase of the trade of this state within a few years past. In 1793, 683 vessels entered the port of New-York from foreign ports, and 1,381 coasting vessels ; 2,064 in the whole. In 1794, vessels from foreign ports, 791 ; coasting vessels, 1523 ; total, 2314. In 1795, vessels from foreign ports, 941. Increase of foreign vessels, in two years, 258.

Sulphur and Medicinal Springs.] On the north bank of Racket river, 12 miles from its mouth, is a spring of water apparently pure, which emits a sulphureous smell so strong, as to be perceived 200 yards distant. The stones and ground near it are crusted over with a white substance.

In township No. 11, 2d range, 12 miles from Geneva, are two large sulphur springs, about 100 rods apart; round each for some distance, the pure sulphur is 3 or 4 feet deep. When the weather is dry, and the wind fair, it is said, these springs may be perceived by the smell a mile distant.

"There are several medicinal springs* in the county of Saratoga; those which are most frequented (on account of superior accommodations) are called *Ballstown Springs*, from their being found within the limits of a town of that name. They are situated about twelve miles west of Stillwater, and about 14 from that part of the banks of the Hudson, or North River, famous for the victory of Gen. Gates over Gen. Burgoyne. They are 206 miles above the city of New-York, 36 north of Albany, and about 30 south of Lake George.

These medicinal springs are found in the bottom of a valley, or excavation, forming a kind of bason, of about 50 acres in extent. In this hollow grow lofty pines, which are overtopped by others, that cover and ornament the hills, which rise at a greater or less distance above the brim of this bason. A brook runs through this singular valley, and empties itself by the only natural slope in it. The woods are pretty well cleared near the springs. There is a pretty large house for entertainment, with neat bathing-houses and shower-baths for the convenience of invalids. These, together with the greatest part of this valley, belong to a merchant of eminence in New-York (Nicholas Low, Esq.) The largest spring, however, belongs to the publick. Sir William Johnson made this benevolent reservation, when he sold this tract of land to private individuals. In tracing the history of these medicinal springs, I could only learn that an Indian chief discovered them to a sick French officer in the early part of their wars with the English. But whether they were these very springs in this bason, or those at 10 miles distance, properly called the Saratoga Springs, I know not.

The soil for six miles round this place, is poor and sandy, producing little else than pine trees, shrub oaks, fern and mullen. In the neighbouring hills, ores have been accidentally found, especially iron and copper, or rather what the *mineralogists* call *ferruginous* and *capreous pyrites*. These have been accidentally discovered; for in a country like this, covered with wood, there is as yet no temptation to explore the earth beyond its surface for fuel.

The valley of Ballstown and its environs may be made an enchanting spot, equal, nay superior in some respects to any of the watering places in Europe. There is, for example, a smaller bason, so near to the one already mentioned, that were they of equal size their two circles would form the figure 8. This small bason is so regular in

* The following account of the Saratoga and New-Lebanon Springs is extracted from *Dr. Waterhouse's MS. Journal to Saratoga*, written in the summer of 1794.

its form, as to seem the result of art, rather than nature. It is not improbable, that in this hollow a spring of water similar to that in the large bason may be discovered, and be converted by the hand of taste into an ornamental fountain. A little higher up orchestras for musick may be erected, and even houses for entertainment built on the very brim of this bowl of nature's forming.

The Kayaderassoras river, which is about ten yards wide, gives several hints to the man of taste, to turn its waters to the use and beauty of the future town, which these medicinal springs will one day raise in this place.

The medicinal waters which have made this spot so famous of late, are remarkably limpid, considering they contain *iron*, a *mineral alkali*, *common salt* and *lime*. They are brisk and sparkling like champaigne. In drinking, they strike the nose and palate like bottled cider, and slightly affect the head of some people, by their inebriating quality. They derive this exhilerating property from what some philosophers call the *spiritus mineralis*, or what Bergman calls the *aerial acid;* Fourcroy, the *cretacious acid;* and Dr. Priestly, *fixed air;* and is that animating *something* which gives activity to yeast, and life to malt liquors. It is used in the neighbourhood of the springs instead of yeast in making bread, and is found to raise it more speedily and effectually than any other ferment in ordinary use.

Its purity gives it a decided preference over the sediment of beer, which is the leaven commonly used by families who make their own bread. Horses drink these waters with avidity.

The effects on flame and on animal life which the philosopher expects to find from the well known properties of fixed air, the ignorant country people consider with different sensations. They see with astonishment that a candle will not burn near the surface of these waters; that fish and frogs are killed in a few minutes, and that geese and ducks cannot swim in these springs but a few minutes before they expire!

These waters are apt to burst bottles when corked in very hot weather, especially during a thunder storm; but with care may be transported in bottles to any distance. These waters boil with a very moderate degree of heat; they are nevertheless, remarkably cold; for when the mercury in Farenheit's thermometer stood at 86 in the open air, and 79 in the brook running near the spring, it stood in one of these mineral springs at 49, and in the other at 51. The first was constantly secluded from the rays of the sun; the last always exposed without a covering.

The most celebrated chalybeate waters in Europe, are 1st. the *Pyrmont*, from a town so called in the circle of Westphalia, just on the confines of Brunswick; 2d. the *Spa*, (or, as we pronounce it, *Spaw*) which is a beautiful village in the bishoprick of Leige in Flanders; and 3d. the *Seltzer*, from a town of that name in the archbishoprick of Triers in Germany. The Pyrmont is the richest of all the chalybeates; the Spa is the next, and these are they which very nearly resemble the waters of Ballstown, in the county of Saratoga, in taste, chymical analysis, and medicinal virtues.

The Pyrmont water, the Spa, and the Seltzer form a considerable article of commerce. The Saratoga waters are equally precious, and may become as valuable in a commercial view in the United States, as the former are in Europe, when they are drank, not merely medicinal, but as a luxury. A few men of opulence and enterprize might give our chalybeates a circulation through the United States, which would be as lucrative to them as beneficial to the publick.

Physicians seldom direct their patients to drink more than three quarts of these waters in 12 hours, but some who visit those springs drink the enormous quantity of three gallons, and even more in a day. Cold as they are, they may be drunken with safety in the hottest weather, owing to that exhilerating volatile spirit already mentioned. They increase every natural evacuation, and what is a little extraordinary, they are cathartick, diuretick and sudorifick, at the same time. On the first trial they are apt to disagree with many people; they create uneasiness in the stomach and bowels, and cause a heat in the glands of the throat, until they begin to pass off freely by the kidneys. Then they become pleasant and operate agreeably. They blacken the teeth and also the alvine fæces. They are deemed specifick in *anorexia*, or want of appetite; and in *dyspepsia*, or difficulty of digestion. They are highly serviceable in most hypochondriack cases, and are equally serviceable in some difficulties and obstructions, which will be particularly mentioned hereafter. They give relief in the stone and gravel. Their credit is not so well established in the gout nor in the rheumatism. They are manifestly prejudicial to the consumptive, and to the constitutions or habits that are prone to inflammations. Their use occasions heats in the glands of the throat and stiffness of the neck, and, in such as are subject to teeth-ach, an aggravation of the pain.

They are highly and justly celebrated in cutaneous diseases, but here discretion is requisite. They throw out pimples in those who have them not, and increase all eruptions already out. They inflame sores, which renders it necessary to drop their use for a few days, and then begin again; at length they cease to have this effect, the sores dry up, and the eruptions vanish. Exercise in a carriage, or on horseback, greatly assists their salutary operation. But much cannot and ought not to be expected without temperance, especially in eating.

Thousands drink and bathe in these Saratoga waters (for by that name I include those at Ballstown as well as those in the limits of the town of Saratoga) in the course of a year: the majority declare themselves pleased and benefited by their use; many reap no advantage whatever, and some are destroyed by them. In fine, they are a very powerful and precious remedy in the hands of the judicious, and ought to be enumerated among the very valuable productions of our happy country.

About ten miles from Ballstown valley, and within the limits of the town of Saratoga, there is a cluster of springs, which are more properly called the *Saratoga springs*. They are situated in a shallow vale, or marsh, in several respects resembling that of Ballstown. These waters appear to have received as strong if not stronger impregnation of the same kind of ingredients that enter those of Ballstown, and may

be a stream of the same fountain, running through the same kind of calcareous earth. One of these springs is covered over by a natural cretacious, or rather calcareous pyramid, about 5 or 6 feet high. This hollow pyramid, or cone, has a hole in the top about 6 inches over. If we look into this hole, we see the mineral water boiling vehemently like a pot over the fire ; the water is nevertheless intensely cold, and is, I think, in every respect smarter than that at Ballstown. The calcareous matter extends for several rods from the basis of this pyramid. There are several idle stories related of this spring, one is that it overflows at certain stages of the moon. This is not true. As this is found to be false, they tell you it overflows once a year ; but this I believe has as little foundation in truth as the other. People who live at these springs think they must relate something marvellous by way of enhancing the value of the waters, and reconciling you to the great expense attending these visits.

There is another medicinal spring at the pleasant village of New-Lebanon, which is situated partly in a vale, and partly on the declivity of hills.

The spring discovers itself on a commanding eminence, overlooking a fine valley, and surrounded with several good houses, which afford much better accommodations for the valetudinarians, than are to be found at any of the springs in the county of Saratoga.

I confess myself at a loss to determine the contents of these waters by chymical analysis, or any of the ordinary tests. I suspect their impregnation is from some cause weakened. Excepting from their warmth, which is about that of new milk, I never should have suspected them to come under the head of medicinal waters. They are used for the various purposes of cookery, and for common drink by the neighbours, and I never could discover any other effects from drinking them, than what we might expect from rain or river water of that temperature.

There is no visible change produced in this water by the addition of an alkali, nor by a solution of alum ; nor was any effervescence raised by the oil of vitriol ; neither did it change the colours of gold, silver or copper ; nor did it redden beef or mutton boiled in it ; nor did it extract a black tincture from galls ; neither did it curdle milk, the whites of eggs, or soap.

The quality of the waters of the pool at Lebanon is, therefore, very different from those of Saratoga. These are warm and warmish ; those very cold, smart and exhilerating. Frogs are found in the pool of Lebanon, and plants grow and flourish in and around it ; but plants will not grow within the vapour of those of Saratoga, and as for small animals, they soon expire in it. Hence we conclude that that *spiritus mineralis* which some call aerial acid, or fixed air, abounds in the one but not in the other.

Yet the Lebanon pool is famous for having wrought many cures, especially in rheumatism, stiff joints, scabby eruptions, and even in visceral obstructions and indigestions ; all of which is very probable. If a person who has brought on a train of chronick complaints, by intemperance in eating and drinking, should swallow four or five quarts of rain or river water in a day, he would not feel so keen an

appetite for animal food, or thirst for spirituous liquors. Hence such a course of water drinking will open obstructions, rinse out impurities, render perspiration free, and thus remove that unnatural load from the animal machine, which causes and keeps up its disorders. Possibly, however, there may be *something* so subtle in these waters as to elude the scrutinizing hand of the chymist, since they all allow that the analysis of mineral waters is one among the most difficult things in the chymical art."

In the new town of Renssalaer, nearly opposite the city of Albany, a medicinal spring has lately been discovered, combining most of the valuable properties of the celebrated waters of Saratoga. Should further experiments confirm the favourable opinion already entertained of this spring, it will prove a fortunate discovery for the city of Albany and for the country adjoining, as well as for the invalids who annually resort to Saratoga, under many inconveniences, and at a great expense.

The salt springs, we have already mentioned. The weight of a bushel of this salt made of these waters is 56lb. and is equal in goodness to that imported from Turk's Island.

Minerals and Fossils.] This state embosoms vast quantities of iron ore. Several mines of iron ore have been discovered near Whitestown, and a forge has been erected at Paris, which makes good iron. Naturalists have observed, that ore in swamps and pondy ground vegetates and increases. There is a silver mine at Phillipsburg, which produces virgin silver. Lead is found in Herkimer county, and sulphur in Montgomery. Spar, zinc or spelter, a semi-metal, magnez, used in glazing, pyrites, of a golden hue, various kinds of copper ore, and lead and coal mines, are found in this state; also petrified wood, plaster of Paris, ising-glass in sheets, talcs and crystals of various kinds and colours, flint, asbestos and several other fossils. A small black stone has also been found, which vitrifies with a small heat, and it is said makes excellent glass.

Literary and Humane Societies.] These are not numerous, and are principally confined to the city of New-York. The first is "The Society for promoting Useful Knowledge." This society is upon an establishment similar to other philosophical societies in Europe and America, but is not incorporated; the members meet once a month. Secondly, "The Society for the Manumission of Slaves, and protecting such of them as have been or may be liberated." This society meets once a quarter. Both these societies consist of gentlemen of the first character in the city, and of some in other parts of the state. Besides these, there is a Marine Society—a Society for the Relief of Poor Debtors confined in gaol—a Manufacturing Society—an Agricultural Society, lately established; of which the members of the legislature are *ex officiis*, members—a Medical Society—and a Society for the information and aid of Emigrants—and two very useful Missionary Societies, one at New-York the other at Albany.

Literature, Colleges, Academies, &c.] Until the year 1754, there was no college in the province of New-York. The state of literature, at that time, I shall give in the words of their historian. "Our schools are in the lowest order; the instructors want instruction, and through

a long and shameful neglect of all the arts and sciences, our common speech is extremely corrupt, and the evidences of a bad taste, both in us to thought and language, are visible in all our proceedings, publick and private." I give this extract as a contrast to the present state of learning in this flourishing commonwealth, which has now two well endowed colleges, and 12 or 14 incorporated academies. There, however, yet remains room for improvement in respect to common schools; for many parts of the country are yet either unfurnished with them, or the schools which they have, are kept by low, ignorant men, which are worse than none; for children had better remain in ignorance than be ill taught. We are happy to add that the legislature have lately patronized collegiate and academick education, by granting a large gratuity to the college and academies in this state, which, in addition to their former funds, renders their endowments handsome, and adequate to their expenditures. They have also granted, in their sessions of 1795 and 1796, and appropriated, the liberal sum of 35,000 dollars a year for the establishment and support of schools throughout the state, one school at least to be kept within the limits of every 4 square miles.*

King's college, in the city of New-York, was principally founded by the voluntary contributions of the inhabitants of the province, assisted by the general assembly, and the corporation of Trinity Church; in the year 1754, a royal charter, (and grant of money) being then obtained, incorporating a number of gentlemen therein mentioned, by the name of "The Governours of the College of the province of New-York, in the city of New-York in America;" and granting to them and their successors forever, among various other rights and privileges, the power of conferring all such degrees as are usually conferred by either of the English universities.

By the charter it was provided, that the president shall always be a member of the church of England, and that a form of prayer collected from the liturgy of that church, with a particular prayer for the college, shall be daily used, morning and evening, in the college chapel; at the same time, no test of their religious persuasion was required from any of the fellows, professors or tutors; and the advantages of education were equally extended to students of all denominations.

The building (which is only one third of the intended structure) consists of an elegant stone edifice, three complete stories high, with four stair-cases, twelve apartments in each, a chapel, hall, library, museum, anatomical theatre, and a school for experimental philosophy.

The college is situated on a dry gravelly soil, about 150 yards from the bank of Hudson river, which it overlooks, commanding a most extensive and beautiful prospect.

Since the revolution, the legislature passed an act constituting 21 gentlemen (of whom the governour and lieutenant governour, for

* The regents of the university in their report to the legislature 1792, "declare with the utmost satisfaction, that the cause of learning is gradually advancing, and promises, in a short time, under the fostering care of the legislature, to extend knowledge and happiness to every part of the state."

the time being, are members *ex officiis)* a body corporate and politick, by the name and style of "The Regents of the University of the state of New-York." They are entrusted with the care of literature in general in the state, and have power to grant charters of incorporation for erecting colleges and academies throughout the state; are to visit these institutions as often as they shall think proper, and report their state to the legislature once a year.

King's college, which we have already described, is now called Columbia College. This college, by an act of the legislature in the spring of 1787, was put under the care of 24 gentlemen, who are a body corporate, by the name and style of "The Trustees of Columbia College, in the city of New York." This body possesses all the powers vested in the governours of King's College, before the revolution, or in the regents of the university since the revolution, so far as their power respected this institution. No regent can be a trustee of any particular college or academy in the state. The regents of the university have power to confer the higher degrees, and those only.

The college edifice has received no addition since the peace, though the erection of a hall and a wing have been contemplated, and funds for the purpose granted by the legislature. The annual revenue arising from the estate belonging to the college, exclusive of some bonds which are not at present productive, amounts to 1535*l.* currency.

Columbia college consists of two faculties; a faculty of arts, and a faculty of physick. The first has a president and seven professors, and the second a dean and seven professors. The students attending both the faculties at the beginning of the year 1795, amounted to 140. The officers of instruction and immediate government in the faculty of arts, are a president, professor of mathematicks and natural philosophy, a professor of logick and geography, and a professor of languages. To these have lately been added a professor of chymistry and agriculture, a professor of oriental languages, a professor of law, and a professor of the French language. In the faculty of physick, the dean is lecturer on clinical medicine in the New-York hospital; and there are the professorships of botany, of anatomy, of the obstetrick art, of materia medica, of the institutes of medicine, of surgery, and the practice of physick. These professors afford the necessary instruction in the healing art. The library and museum were destroyed during the war. Upwards of £800 (of monies granted by the legislature) have been lately expended in books to increase the library. The philosophical apparatus is new and complete.

Another college, by the name of "Union College in the town of Skenectady in the state of New-York," was incorporated by the regents of the university in 1794. The reasons for establishing a college here, we shall give in the words of the regents themselves: "The prosperous state of an academy there; the early and repeated application of a number of citizens for the erection of a college, and the liberal contributions made for that purpose; together with the conveniency to the northern and western parts of the state, induced the regents to incorporate this college; and they believe that it will greatly promote

the diffusion of literature, especially as it will accommodate a large share of the community, who have either not ability to bear the expense, or inclination to send their children to a populous city." This college has since been organized, under the direction of 24 trustees, and is in prosperous circumstances. The officers are a president, professor of mathematicks and natural philosophy, and two other professors. This college took its name from the union of various denominations of Christians in its establishment. The Dutch were, however, by far the most liberal benefactors to this institution. It is well situated for the convenience of the northern and western parts of the state. In June, 1796, there were 40 students, divided into 4 classes, viz. 1 languages, 2 history and belles lettres, 3 mathematicks, 4 philosophy. The annual expense of education here, including board, tuition, &c. is less than 100 dollars. The property of the college in 1796 consisted in various articles, to the following amount, viz.

	Dolls.	cts.
Bonds and mortgages, producing an annual interest of 7 per cent.	21,301	6
Subscriptions and other debts due on the books of the treasurer	4983	10
Cash appropriated for the purchase of books	1356	45
House and lot for the president	3500	
Lot for the site of the college	3250	
House and lot heretofore occupied for the academy, a donation from the consistory of the Dutch church	5000	
Books, &c. in the possession of the trustees, and on the way from Europe	2381	99
Cash appropriated by the regents for the purchase of books in the hands of the committee	400	
Legacy by Abraham Yates, jun. Esq. of Albany	250	
	42,422	60

And 1604 acres of land. The faculty of the college consisted, in 1797, of the president and one tutor; the salary of the former with a house for his family, is 1500 dollars, and of the latter 665 dollars per annum, with an aditional allowance at present of 250 dollars, on account of the extraordinary price of the necessaries of life. There were, in 1797, 37 students, eight in the class of languages, twenty in the class of history and belles lettres, six in the class of mathematicks, and three in the class of philosophy. The course of studies is, the first year Virgil, Cicero's orations, Greek Testament, Lucian, Roman antiquities, arithmetick and English grammar; the second year, geography, and the use of the globes, Roman history, history of America and the American revolution, Xenophon, Horace, criticism and eloquence; the third year, the various branches of mathematicks, and vulgar and decimal fractions, and the extraction of the roots, geometry, algebra, trigonometry, navigation, mensuration, Xenophon continued, and Homer: and the fourth and last year, natural philosophy, the constitution of the United States and of the different states, metaphysicks, or at least that part which treats of the philosophy of the human mind, Horace continued, and Longinus;

and during the course of these studies, the attention of the classes is particularly required to elocution and composition in the English language. A provision is also made, for substituting the knowledge of the French language instead of the Greek, in certain cases, if the funds should hereafter admit of instituting a French professorship. The library consisted of about 1000 volumes, and £500 was appropriated to the purchase of a philosophical apparatus. The number of instructors in this college has been increased, and its affairs are in a prosperous train.

The state of the academies in the begining of the year 1799, according to the report of the regents, was as follows :

Clinton Academy, at East-Hampton, on the east end of Long-Island, had, at the period above mentioned, 97 scholars. The academy of Erasmus Hall, at Flatbush, Long-Island, four miles from Brooklyn Ferry, 42. Columbia Academy, at Kinderhook, from 57 to 70. Hamilton Oneida Academy, flourishing. North Salem Academy, 55. Oxford Academy, 60 to 70. In 1795, Union Hall Academy had 55 students. Farmer's Hall Academy, including an English school annexed to it, 70. Montgomery Academy, 56. Washington Academy, 51. In Dutchess county the Friends have a boarding school instituted in 1797 under excellent regulations. "The regents in 1795 had the superintendence of two colleges and twelve academies. These, with the establishment of schools for the common branches of education, must soon have the most beneficial effects on the state of society. The streams issuing from these fountains must enrich the pastures of the wilderness, and cause the little hills to rejoice on every side."

Religion.] The constitution of this state provides for "the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination or preference, within the state, for all mankind. Provided that the liberty of conscience hereby granted shall not be so construed as to excuse acts of licentiousness, or justify practices inconsistent with the peace and safety of the state."

The various religious denominations in this state are the following ; English Presbyterians, Dutch Reformed, Baptists, Episcopalians, Friends or Quakers, German Lutherans, Moravians, Methodists, Roman Catholicks, Jews, Shakers, and a few of the followers of Jemima Wilkinson. The Shakers are principally settled at New-Lebanon, and the followers of Jemima Wilkinson at Geneva, about 12 miles south-west of the Cayuga Lake. These sects are decreasing.

In April 1784, the legislature of this state passed an act enabling all religious denominations to appoint trustees, not less than three, or more than nine, who shall be a body corporate, for the purpose of taking care of the temporalities of their respective congregations, and for the other purposes therein mentioned.

The ministers of every denomination in the state are supported by the voluntary contributions of the people, raised, generally, by subscription, or by a tax upon the pews ; except the Dutch churches in New-York, Skenectady and Kingston, which have, except the two last, large estates confirmed by a charter. The Episcopal church also in New-York possesses a very large estate in and near the city. The

inhabitants throughout a considerable part of this state do not enjoy the regular administration of gospel ordinances; in many instances the sad effects are deplorably visible. Missionaries from Connecticut and Massachusetts as well as from two respectable missionary societies in the state of New-York, have visited these destitute settlements. The Oneidas, Tuscaroras, Chickasaws and Cherokees, have also experienced the happy effects of their christian benevolence.

Constitution, * *and Courts of Justice.*] The present constitution of the state was established by a convention authorised for the purpose, April 20, 1777.

The supreme legislative powers of the state are vested in two branches, a Senate and Assembly. The members of the senate are elected by the freeholders of the state, who possess freehold estates to the value of £100 clear of debts. For the purpose of electing senators, the state is divided into four great districts, each of which chooses a certain number, viz.

Southern District, including the counties of { New-York, Suffolk, West-Chester, Kings, Queens, Richmond, } Nine Senators.

Middle District { Dutchess, Ulster, Orange, } Six.

Western District { Albany, Montgomery, } Six.

Eastern District { Washington, *Cumberland*, *Gloucester*, } Three.

The senators are divided by lot into four classes, six in each class, and numbered, first, second, third and fourth. The seats of the first class are vacated at the expiration of one year; the second, at the expiration of the next, &c. and their places filled by new elections. Thus a small change is made in the Senate every year; but three fourths of the members remaining, preserve a knowledge of the business of a former session. A majority of the senate is necessary to do business, and each branch of the legislature has a negative upon the other.

The legislature can at any time alter this division of the state for the choice of senators; and an increase of electors in any district, to the amount of one twenty-fourth of the electors in the whole state, entitles the district to another senator.† But the number of senators can never exceed one hundred.

The assembly of the state is composed of representatives from the several counties, chosen annually in May, in the following proportion:

* The constitution of this state was revised in the autumn of 1801. The alterations made were inconsiderable.

† Some alterations have taken place since this constitution was formed, (in 1777) in respect to the number of senators and representatives, which has increased in consequence of the increase of inhabitants. "By the census taken in 1790, in this state, the freeholders amounted to 19,395. By the census of 1795, the number was found to be increased to 36,338, having nearly doubled in five years." [*Centinel.*]

For the city and county of New-York, 9.
For the city and county of Albany, 7.

For Dutchess,	7	For Richmond,	2
West-Chester,	6	Montgomery,	6
Ulster,	6	Washington, and Clinton,	4
Suffolk,	5	Columbia,	3
Queens,	4	Cumberland,	3
Orange,	4	Gloucester,	2
Kings,	2		

By the constitution, however, it is ordered, that at the end of seven years after the termination of the late war, a census of the electors and inhabitants shall be taken, and the representation apportioned according to the number of electors in each county.

Every male inhabitant of full age, who has resided in the state six months preceding the day of election, and possessing a freehold to the value of 20 pounds, in the county where he is to give his vote; or has rented a tenement therein of the yearly value of 40 shillings, and has been rated and actually paid taxes, is entitled to vote for representatives in assembly. The freedom of the cities of New-York and Albany, likewise entitles a person to the privilege of voting for members of assembly in the city or county where he resides. The method of voting is now by ballot, but subject to alteration by the legislature. The house of assembly, a majority of which is necessary to proceed to business, chooses its own speaker, and is a judge of its own privileges. The number of representatives is limited to three hundred. The present number (in 1788) is 65. It has since increased.

The supreme executive power of the state is vested in a governour, (in whose absence a deputy-governour is appointed to serve) chosen once in three years, by the freemen of the state; the lieutenant-governour is, by his office, president of the senate; and, upon an equal division of voices, has a casting vote; but has no voice on other occasions. The governour has not a seat in the legislature; but, as a member of the council of revision and council of appointment, he has a vast influence in the state.

The council of revision is composed of the chancellor, the judges of the supreme court, or any of them, and the governour. This council is empowered to revise all bills which have passed the two houses of the legislature, and if it shall appear to the council that such bills ought not to pass into laws, they shall be returned to the house in which they originated, with the objections of the council, in writing. The house shall then proceed to reconsider the bills, with the objections, and if, notwithstanding, two thirds of the house shall agree to the bills, they shall be sent to the other house, where they shall be reconsidered, and the assent of two thirds of the members pass them into laws. But if a bill is not returned in 10 days, it becomes a law of course.

The subordinate officers of the state are appointed by the *council of appointment*, which is composed of one senator from each district, to be chosen annually by the legislature, with the governour, or in his absence, the lieutenant-governour or the president of the senate, who has a casting vote only.

All military officers hold their commissions during pleasure. The chancellor, the judges of the supreme court, and the first judge of each county court, hold their offices during good behaviour. These officers can hold no other office at the same time, except that of delegate to congress.

Sheriffs and coroners are appointed annually, and can serve but 4 years successively.

A court of errors and impeachment is instituted, composed of the president of the senate, the senate, chancellor and judges of the supreme court, or the major part of them, under the regulation of the legislature. The power of impeachment is vested in the house of representatives, and the members on trial must be sworn.

Besides the court of errors and impeachment, there is first, a *Court of Chancery*, consisting of a chancellor, appointed by the council of appointment, who holds his office during good behaviour, or until he arrive at the age of 60 years. Secondly, a *Supreme Court*, the judges of which are appointed in the same manner, and for the same time as the chancellor. This is a circuit court. Thirdly, *County Courts*, held in each county, the judges of which are appointed in the manner above mentioned, and the first judge holds his office during good behaviour, or until he arrive at the age of 60 years. Besides these, there are the justices' courts, court of probates, court of admiralty, court of exchequer, a court of oyer and terminer and general gaol delivery, and court of quarter sessions.

The practice in the supreme court, to which an appeal lies from the courts below, is in imitation of the courts of common pleas and king's bench in England.

All free governments abound with lawyers. Where men have the privilege of thinking and acting for themselves, they will involve themselves in debt, and quarrel with their neighbours. In proportion to the debts and disputes of the people, lawyers will multiply. Of these America furnishes a plentiful growth, and New-York has its share, as it contained (in 1788) not less than 120 licensed attornies. In this state, the practice of law is conformed to the English mode. The several degrees in the profession; the number of critical examinations that candidates are obliged to pass through before they can be admitted as counsellors in the higher courts; together with the time of study required by the rules of admission, render an access to the first honours of the bar so difficult as to preclude ignorant pretenders to the important science of law. New-York can boast of many eminent characters in all the learned professions, and has furnished America with some of her most able legislators. It is, however, to be feared, that a too rigid adherence to the forms of legal process in England has sometimes perplexed the road to justice, and prevented valuable improvements in the practice, not only of this, but of most of the other states.

Military Strength.] By official returns of the militia of this state, made to the governour by the adjutant-general, it appears that the total number in 1789, was 42,679; 1790—44,259; 1791—50,399. Besides these there are as many as 5 or 6000 of the militia in the new settlements who are not yet organized. According to a return

of the state of the militia, made by the adjutant-general to the governour, March 17th, 1800, it appears that the total of

Infantry is	60,897
Cavalry	2,047
Artillery	1,067
	64,011

Besides which, in Chenango, there are about 600 men not organized, and in Delaware county 550 lately organized.

Forts, &c.] These are principally in ruins. The demolition of the fort in the city of New-York has been mentioned. Remains of the fortifications on Long-Island, York-Island, White-Plains, West-Point and other places, are still visible. In addition to what Congress granted for the same purpose, this state granted in 1794, the sum of 21,000 dollars, for the purpose of erecting fortifications to secure the harbour of New-York in case of invasion. In consequence of which, works have been erected to a considerable extent, and when completed on the original plan, will afford great security to the city, from enemy's ships. Fort Stanwix, built by the British in 1758, at the expense, it is said, of 60,000l. is 107 miles westward of Skenectady, on an artificial eminence bordering on the Mohawk river; and, in travelling this distance, you pass Fort Hunter, Fort Anthony, Fort Plain, Fort Herkimer and Fort Schuyler. As you proceed westward of Fort Stanwix, you pass Fort Bull and Fort Breweton, at the west end of Oneida Lake. Fort George is at the south end of Lake George. At the point where Lake George communicates with Lake Champlaine, is the famous post of Ticonderoga, by which word the Canadians understood *noisy*. The works, at this place, are in such a state of dilapidation, that a stranger can scarcely form an idea of their construction. They are, however, situated on such high ground as to command the communication between the lakes George and Champlaine. Opposite, on the south side of the water that empties out of Lake George, is a mountain, to appearance inaccessible, called Mount Defiance, where general Burgoyne in the late war, with a boldness, secresy and dispatch almost unparalleled, conveyed a number of cannon, stores and troops. The cannon were raised by large brass tackles from tree to tree, and from rock to rock, over dens of rattle-snakes, to the summits, which entirely command the works of Ticonderoga. This circumstance must ever be considered as a full justification of general St. Clair's sudden retreat with the American army; and the observation which he made, on his trial, in his own defence, that, "though he had lost a post, he had saved a state," was afterwards verified.

Crown Point is 15 miles north of Ticonderoga on Lake Champlaine. The fort at this place, in which a British garrison was always kept, from the reduction of Canada till the American revolution, was the most regular, and the most expensive of any ever constructed and supported by the British government in North-America. The walls are of wood and earth, about 16 feet high, and 20 feet thick, and nearly 150 yards square, surrounded by a deep and broad ditch, cut through a solid rock. It stands on a rising ground perhaps 200 yards from the lake, with which there was a covered way, by which

the garrison could be supplied with water in time of a siege. The only gate opens on the north towards the lake, where there was a draw-bridge. On the right and left, as you enter the fort, are a row of stone barracks, not inelegantly built, sufficient to contain 1,500 or 2,000 troops; the parade is between them, and is a flat smooth rock. There were several out-works, which are now in ruins, as is the principal fort, except the walls, and the walls of the barracks which still remain.

Banks.] There are four banks in the city of New-York, viz. the Branch of the United States, New-York Bank, the Manhattan Bank and Merchant's Bank, lately incorporated. There are banks also at Albany, Hudson and Troy.

Mode of raising Internal Taxes.] The legislature fix upon the sums to be raised, and apportion it among the several counties. This being done, the supervisors, one from each township in the respective counties, assemble and assign to each township its proportion of the quota of the county. The supervisor and assessors in each township then apportion their quota among the individuals of the township, according to the value of their real and personal estates. The tax thus laid, is collected by the collector of the townships, and lodged with the county treasurer, who trasmits it to the treasurer of the state.

Finances.] A variety of circumstances have conspired to fill the treasury of this state, and wholly to supersede the necessity of taxation for several years past; *first*, confiscations, and economical management of that property; *second*, sales of unappropriated lands; and *third*, a duty on imports previous to the establishment of the Federal Government. The two former were sold for continental certificates at a time when the credit of the state was perhaps above the par of the Union, which was the cause of getting a large sum of the publick debt into the treasury of the state at a depreciated value. These certificates, since the funding system came into operation, added to the assumed state debt, a vast quantity of which was also in the treasury, form an enormous mass of property, yielding an annuity of 234,218 dollars.*

The treasurer of this state reported to the legislature, January, 1796, "An account of the bank shares, funded debt, &c. belonging to the state of New-York, on the 31st day of December, 1795," as follows:

	Shares.
"In the United States bank	152
In the New-York bank	100
In the western inland Lock Navigation	200
In the northern do.	200

	Dols.	Cts.
Six per cent. stock	611,388	1
Three per cent. do.	722,075	98
Deferred debt	785,604	34
	2,119,068	33

* General Schuyler's letter of March 16, 1795.

Besides the above mass of property, there was at that period in the treasury the sum of £134,207 19 10¾ currency.

The ability of the state, therefore, is abundantly competent to aid publick institutions of every kind, to make roads, erect bridges, open canals, and to push every kind of improvement to the most desirable length. It could be wished, that those citizens who were exiled during the war, and whose property was exposed during its continuance to wanton depredations, could be thought of by a legislature, possessing so fully the means of discriminating this unhappy class of sufferers, and making them compensation for their voluntary sacrifices.

Curiosities.] In the county of Montgomery is a small, rapid stream, emptying into Scroon Lake, west of Lake George; it runs under a hill, the base of which is 60 or 70 yards diameter, forming a most curious and beautiful arch in the rock, as white as snow. The fury of the water and the roughness of the bottom, added to the terrifick noise within, has hitherto prevented any person from passing through the chasm.

In the township of Willsborough in Clinton county, is a curious split rock. A point of a mountain, which projected about 50 yards into Lake Champlaine, appears to have been broken by some violent shock of nature. It is removed from the main rock or mountain about 20 feet, and the opposite sides so exactly suit each other, that one needs no other proof of their having been once united. The point broken off contains about half an acre, and is covered with wood. The height of the rock on each side the fissure is about 12 feet. Round this point is a spacious bay, sheltered from the south-west and north-west winds by the surrounding hills and woods. On the west side are four or five finely cultivated farms, which altogether, at certain seasons, and in certain situations, forms one of the most beautiful landscapes imaginable. "Sailing under this coast for several miles before you come to Split Rock, the mountains rude, and barren, seem to hang over the passenger and threaten destruction. A water, boundless to the sight, lies before him; man feels his own littleness, and infidelity itself pays an unwilling homage to the Creator. Instantly and unexpectedly the scene changes, and peeping with greedy eye, through the fissure, nature presents to the view a silver bason—a verdant lawn—a humble cottage—a golden harvest—a majestick forest—a lofty mountain—an azure sky, rising one above another "in just gradation to the amazing whole."* In the south-east part of Lake Erie, 20 rods from the shore, where the water is four feet and a half deep, is a curious spring which boils up from the bottom. It is inflammable when a brand is thrust into it, and proves a powerful emetick, when drank. It has been named Ether Spring.

"In the year 1792, a very extraordinary cavern, at a place called by the Indians, Sepascot, on the estate of the Miss Rutsens, at Rhynbeck, in Dutchess county, was discovered. A lad, by chance, passing near its entrance, which lay between two huge rocks on the declivity of a steep hill, on prying into the gloomy recess, saw the top of a ladder, by which he descended about 10 feet, and found himself in a

* Mr. M. L. Woolsey of Plattsburg. To this ingenious gentleman, the Author is indebted for much valuable information concerning Clinton county.

subterraneous apartment, more capacious than he then chose to investigate. He found, however, that it had been the abode of persons, who probably during the war, not daring to be seen openly, had taken shelter there, as bits of cloth and pieces of leather were scattered about its floor. He then left the place, and little more was thought of it, until the writer of this account made one of a large party who went from the seat of a gentleman in the neighbourhood, on purpose to examine it. We found its entrance much smaller than we expected, and with some difficulty gained the ladder, by means of which the remaining descent was made tolerably easy. Two young ladies were with us, who had heroism enough to make the trophimium tour with us. We had six candles to scrutinize the recesses of the apartment, where perhaps light for upwards of five thousand years before had never gleamed. We found the cave divided by a narrow passage into two divisions; the first being about 17 feet in length, and so low that a child of eight years old could but just walk upright in it; the breadth is about 8 or 10 feet. The second between 12 and 14 feet in length, but much higher and broader than the first. In this last room we found that three bats had taken up their winter quarters, and hung suspended from the roof, as it were, by the very tips of their wings. But what makes the cave peculiarly worthy of notice, is the petrifying quality of the water, that by a gentle oozing, continually drops from every part of the ceiling, the whole of which exactly resembles a mill-gutter in a frosty morning, with a thousand icicles impending. These concretions are formed by the water, and probably are constantly increasing. They have in almost every respect the appearance of icicles, and may be broken off by the hand, if not more than two inches in circumference. They appear of a consistence much like indurated lime, almost transparent, and are all perforated quite through the whole length, with a hole of the size of that in a tobacco-pipe, through which aperture the water unremittedly drops, although very slow. When a person is in the remotest room, and the lights are removed into the first, those pendant drops of water make an appearance more splendid than can be well imagined. Some of those stony icicles have at length reached the bottom of the cave, and now form pillars, some of more than two feet in girth, of the appearance of marble, and almost as hard. They put one in mind of Solomon's Jachin and Boaz, imagination very easily gives them pedestals and chapiters, and even wreathen-work. But what we most admired, was the skeleton of a large snake, turned into solid stone by the petrifying quality of the water before mentioned. It was with some difficulty torn up with an axe from the rock it lay upon, (some of which adhered to it) and is now in the possession of the relater. We found the inmost recesses of this cavern very warm, and experienced the want of free air, by a difficult respiration, although the candles burnt very clear."*

Near the mouth of Black River, which enters lake Ontario, are the ruins of an ancient fort. Near Sandy creek are 4 similar ones. Some of these works are regularly built, and now almost entire. On these ramparts of other times, trees are growing 2 feet in diameter. In one

* Massachusetts Magazine for November, 1792.

is a well 12 or 14 feet deep, stoned in our usual method. These works appear to be similar to those near the Cayuga and Seneca lakes.

Indians.] The body of the Six Nations inhabit the western parts of this state. The principal part of the Mohawk tribe reside on Grand river, in Upper Canada; and there are two villages of Senecas on the Allegany river, near the north line of Pennsylvania, and a few Delawares and Skawaghkees on Buffaloe Creek. Including these, and the Stockbridge and Mohegan Indians, who have migrated and settled in the vicinity of Oneida, there were, in the Six Nations, in 1791, according to an accurate estimate made by the Reverend Mr. Kirkland, missionary among them, 6,330 souls. He adds, that among these there is comparatively but very few children.

The following extract of a letter from Mr. Kirkland to the author, will give the reader an idea of the characters, which, according to Indian tradition, are excluded from the happy country. "The region of pure spirits, the Five Nations call *Eskanane.* The only characters which, according to their traditions, cannot be admitted to participate of the pleasures and delights of this happy country, are reduced to three, viz. suicides, the disobedient to the counsels of the chiefs, and such as put away their wives on account of pregnancy. According to their tradition, there is a gloomy, fathomless gulf, near the borders of the delightful mansions of Eskanane, over which all good and brave spirits pass with safety, under the conduct of a faithful and skilful guide appointed for that purpose; but when a suicide, or any of the abovementioned characters, approaches this gulf, the conductor, who possesses a most penetrating eye, instantly discovers their spiritual features and character, and denies them his aid, assigning his reasons. They will, however, attempt to cross upon a small pole, which, before they reach the middle, trembles and shakes, till presently down they fall with horrid shrieks. In this dark and dreary gulf, they suppose resides a great dog, some say a dragon, infected with the itch, which makes him perpetually restless and spiteful. The guilty inhabitants of this miserable region, all catch this disease of the great dog, and grope and roam from side to side of their gloomy mansion in perpetual torments. Sometimes they approach so near the happy fields of Eskanane, that they can hear the songs and dances of their former companions. This only serves to increase their torments, as they can discern no light, nor discover any passage by which they can gain access to them. They suppose idiots and dogs go into the same gulf, but have a more comfortable apartment, where they enjoy some little light." Mr. Kirkland adds, that several other nations of Indians with whom he has conversed on the subject, have nearly the same traditionary notions of a future state. They almost universally agree in this, that the departed spirit is ten days in its passage to their happy elysium, after it leaves the body; some of them suppose its course towards the south; others that it ascends from some lofty mountain.

The Oneidas inhabit on Oneida Creek, 21 miles west of Fort Stanwix.

The Tuscaroras migrated from North-Carolina and the frontiers of Virginia, and were adopted by the Oneidas, with whom they have ever since lived. They were originally of the same nation.

The Senecas inhabit on the Chenesee or Genessee river, at the Chenessee castle. They have two towns of 60 or 70 souls each, on French Creek, in Pennsylvania; and another town on Buffaloe Creek, attached to the British; two small towns on Allegany river, attached to the Americans. Obeil, or Cornplanter, one of the Seneca chiefs, resided here. A missionary from the society in New-York has been cordially received by the Seneca and Tuscarora tribes. In their *talk* to the missionary the Tuscaroras say, "We and our forefathers have long been under dark clouds, no friends to help us to know the will of the good Spirit." The Senecas, after grateful acknowledgments for the mission, say, "We believe there is something great after death." The state of society and morals is deplorable among these natives. Though they are becoming somewhat industrious, their ancient forms of marriage have been omitted for near a century. They mingle together like brutes of the desert. In one Tuscarora village, there is not a single legitimate child, nor a married couple. The Senecas are drunkards, worship the Great Spirit by dances, and the sacrifice of white dogs.

The Mohawks were acknowledged by the other tribes, to use their own expression, to be "the true old heads of the confederacy;" and were formerly a powerful tribe, inhabitating on the Mohawk river. As they were strongly attached to the Johnson family, on account of Sir William Johnson, they emigrated to Canada, with Sir John Johnson, about the year 1776. There is now only one family of them in the state, and they live about a mile from Fort Hunter. The father of this family was drowned in the winter of 1788.

All the confederated tribes, except the Oneidas and Tuscaroras, sided with the British in the late war, and fought against the Americans.

The Onondagas live near the Onondaga Lake, about 25 miles from the Oneida Lake. In the spring of 1779, a regiment of men were sent from Albany, by general J. Clinton, against the Onondagas. This regiment surprised their town, took thirty-three prisoners, killed twelve or fourteen, and returned without the loss of a man. A party of the Indians were at this time ravaging the American frontiers.

There are very few of the Delaware tribe in this state.

The Five Confederated Nations were settled along the banks of the Susquehannah, and in the adjacent country, until the year 1779, when general Sullivan, with an army of 4,000 men, drove them from their country to Niagara, but could not bring them to action. They waited, but waited in vain, for the assistance of the elements, or, as they expressed themselves, for the assistance of the Great Spirit. Had heavy rains fallen while general Sullivan's army was advanced into their country, perhaps few of his soldiers would have escaped, and none of their baggage, ammunition or artillery. This expedition had a good effect. General Sullivan burnt several of their towns, and destroyed their provisions. Since this irruption into their country, their former habitations have been mostly deserted, and many of them have gone to Canada.

On the 13th of November, 1787, John Livingston, Esq. and four others, obtained of the Six Nations of Indians a lease for 999 years, on a yearly rent reserved of 2000 dollars, of all the country included in the following limits, viz. Beginning at a place commonly known by the name of Canada Creek, about seven miles west of Fort Stanwix, now Fort Schuyler, thence north-eastwardly to the line of the province of Quebeck; thence along the said line to the Pennsylvania line; thence east on said line or Pennsylvania line to the line of property, so called by the state of New-York; thence along the said line of property to Canada Creek aforesaid. And on the 8th of January, 1788, the same persons obtained a lease of the Oneida Indians, for 999 years, on a rent reserved for the first year, of 1200 dollars, and increasing it at the rate of 100 dollars a year, until it amounts to 1500 dollars, of all the tract of land commonly called the Oneida country, except a reservation of several tracts specified in the lease. But these leases having been obtained without the consent of the legislature of the state, the senate and assembly, in their session, March, 1788, resolved, "That the said leases are purchases of lands, and therefore that by the constitution of this state, the said leases are not binding on the said Indians, and are not valid." Since this, a treaty has been concluded with the said Indians; the bargain of the leases annulled, and all the country purchased of the natives, except a reservation to the Oneidas, Cayugas, and Onondagas, defined by certain marks and boundaries.

Islands.] There are three islands of note belonging to this state; viz. Manhattan or York-Island, Long-Island, and Staten Island.

York or Manhattan Island is 15 miles in length, and hardly one in breadth. It is joined to the main by a bridge called *King's Bridge*. The channels between Long and Staten Islands, and between Long and York Islands, are so narrow as to occasion an unusual rapidity of the tides, which is increased by the confluence of the waters of the Hudson and East Rivers. This rapidity in general prevents the obstruction of the channel by ice, so that the navigation is clear, except for a few days in seasons when the weather is uncommonly severe. There is no bason or bay for the reception of ships; but the road where they lie in East River is defended from the violence of the sea by the islands which interlock with each other; so that, except that of Rhode-Island, and Portland in the district of Maine, the harbour of New-York, which admits ships of any burthen, is one of the best in the United States.

Long-Island extends 140 miles, and terminates with Montauk point. It is not more than 10 miles in breadth, on a medium, and is separated from Connecticut by Long-Island Sound. The Island is divided into three counties; Kings, Queens and Suffolk.

Kings County lies at the west end of Long-Island, opposite New-York and is not above 10 miles long, and eight broad. The inhabitants are principally Dutch, and live well. It contains a number of pleasant villages, of which Flatbush, Brooklyn and Bedford are the principal.

Queens County lies next to Kings, as you proceed eastward. It is about 30 miles long, and 12 broad. Jamaica, Newtown, Hamp-

stead, in which is a handsome court-house, and Oysterbay, are the principal villages in this county.

Suffolk County is about 100 miles long, and 10 broad, and comprehends all the eastern part of the Island, and several little islands adjoining; viz. Shelter Island, Fishers Island, Plum Island, and the Isle of White. Its principal towns are Huntington, Southampton, Smithtown, Brook-Haven, East-Hampton, in which is the academy, Southhold and Bridge-Hampton.

The south side of the island is flat land, of a light sandy soil, bordering on the sea-coast with large tracts of salt meadow, extending from the west point of the island to Southampton. This soil, however, is well calculated for raising grain, especially Indian corn. The north side of the island is hilly, and of a strong soil, adapted to the culture of grain, hay and fruit. A ridge of hills extends from Jamaica to Southhold. Large herds of cattle feed upon Hampstead plain, and on the salt marshes upon the south side of the island.

Hampstead plain, in Queens county, is a curiosity. It is 16 miles in length east and west, and seven or eight miles wide. The soil is black, and to appearance rich, and yet it was never known to have any natural growth, but a kind of wild grass and a few shrubs. It is frequented by vast numbers of plover. Rye grows tolerably well on some parts of the plain. The most of it lies common for cattle, horses and sheep. As there is nothing to impede the prospect in the whole length of this plain, it has a curious but tiresome effect upon the eye, not unlike that of the ocean.

East of this plain on the middle of the island, is a barren heath, overgrown with shrub oaks and pines, in which it is supposed there are several thousand deer. It is frequented also by a great number of growse, a very delicious bird. Laws have been passed for the preservation of these birds and the deer.

It is remarkable that on Montauk point, at the east end of the island, there are no flies. Between this point and East-Hampton, is a beach, three quarters of a mile wide, in the centre of which was found, about 50 years ago, under a sand hill which was blown up by the wind, the entire skeleton of a large whale, nearly half a mile from the water.

There are very few rivers upon the island. The largest is Peakonok, which rises about 10 miles west of a place called River-head, where the court-house stands, and runs easterly into a large bay dividing Southhold from Southampton. In this bay are Robin and Shelter Islands.

The south side of this island is indented with numerous streams, of various sizes, which fall into a large bay, two or three miles over, formed by a beach, about 80 rods wide, which appears like a border to the island, extending from the west end of it to Southampton. Through this beach, in various places, are inlets of such depth as to admit vessels of sixty or seventy tons. This bay was formerly fresh water. Oysters, clams and fish of various kinds are caught with ease, and in great plenty in this bay, with seines, during the winter season. It is not uncommon to see 40 or 50 vessels here loading with oysters at the same time. And what is almost incredible, though I was told

of it by two gentlemen of truth, and who were well informed as to the matter, 30 waggon loads of bass have been caught in this bay at one draught.

Rockonkama pond lies about the centre of the island, between Smithtown and Islip, and is about a mile in circumference. This pond has been found by observation to rise gradually for several years, until it had arrived to a certain height, and then to fall more rapidly to its lowest bed; and thus it is continually ebbing and flowing. The cause of this curious phenomenon has never been investigated. Two miles to the southward of this pond is a considerable stream, called Connecticut river, which empties into the bay.

There are two whale fisheries; one from Saggharbour which produces about 1000 barrels of oil annually. The other is much smaller, and is carried on by the inhabitants in the winter season, from the south side of the island. They commonly catch from three to seven whales in a season, which produce from 25 to 40 barrels of oil each. This fishery was formerly a source of considerable wealth to the inhabitants, but through a scarcity of whales, it has greatly declined of late years.

There is a considerable trade carried on from Saggharbour, whence is exported to the West-Indies and other places, whale oil, pitch-pine boards, horses, cattle, flax-seed, beef, &c. The produce of the middle and western parts of the island is carried to New-York. The island contained in 1790, 36,949 inhabitants, and in 1800, 42,097.

Staten Island lies nine miles south-west of the city of New-York, and forms Richmond county. It is about 18 miles in length, and at a medium, six or seven in breadth, and contains 4,563 inhabitants. On the south side is a considerable tract of level, good land; but the island in general is rough, and the hills high. Richmond is the only town of any note on the island, and that is a poor inconsiderable place. The inhabitants are principally descendants of the Dutch and French.

History.] See Smith's History of New-York, and Hazard's Collection of state papers.*

In 1787, the legislature of this state ceded to the commonwealth of Massachusetts all the lands within their jurisdiction, west of a meridian that shall be drawn from a point in the north boundary line of Pennsylvania, 82 miles west from the Delaware, (excepting one mile along the east side of Niagara river); and also 10 townships between the Chenango and Owegy rivers, reserving the jurisdiction to the state of New-York. This cession was made to satisfy a claim of Massachusetts founded upon their original charter.

A List of Governours from the year 1664, *to the present time.*

Names.	Began to govern.	Names.	Began to govern.
Nicolls	1664	Brockhust	1682
Lovelace	1668	Dongan	1683
Andross	1674	Slaughter	1690

* The Rev. Samuel Miller, of New-York, is engaged in writing a history of this state.

Names.	Began to govern.	Names.	Began to govern.
Ingoldsby	1691	Clinton	1743
Fletcher	1692	Osborn	1753
Bellemont	1698	De Lancey	1753
Nanfan	1699	Sir Charles Hardy	1755
Bellemont	1700	De Lancey	1757
Depeyster	1700	Colden (President)	1760
Smith	1700	Monckton	1761
Nanfan	1701	Colden	1761
Cronbury	1702	Monckton	1762
Lovelace	1708	Colden	1763
Schuyler	1709	Sir Henry Moore	1765
Ingoldsby	1709	Colden	1769
Beekman	1710	Dunmore	1770
Hunter	1710	Tryon	1771
Burnet	1720	Clinton	1778
Montgomerie	1728	Jay	1798
Vandam	1731	Clinton	1801
Crosby	1732	Lewis	1804
Clarke	1735		

NEW-JERSEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		
Length 160 Breadth 52	between	39° and 41° 24′ North latitude. The body of the state lies between the meridian of Philadelphia, and 1° E. longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED east, by Hudson river and the sea; south, by the sea; west, by Delaware bay and river which divides it from the states of Delaware and Pennsylvania; north, by a line drawn from the mouth of Mahakkamak river, in latitude 41° 24′ to a point on Hudson river in latitude 41°. Containing about 8,320 square miles, equal to 5,324,800 acres.

Civil Divisions, Population, &c.] New Jersey is divided into 13 counties, which are subdivided into 94 townships or precincts, as follows:

Counties.	No. Inhab. in 1790.	No. Inhab. in 1800.	Chief Towns.	No. Slaves in 1790.	No. Slaves in 1800.
Cape May	2,571	3,066		141	93
Cumberland	8,248	9,529	Bridgetown	120	75
Salem	10,437	11,371	Salem	172	85
Gloucester	13,360	16,115	Woodbury & Gloucester	191	61
Burlington	18,095	21,521	Burlington Bordentown	227	188
Hunterdon	20,253	21,261	Trenton	1,301	1,220
Sussex*	19,500	22,534	Newtown	439	514
Bergen	12,601	15,156	Hackinsak	2,301	2,825
Essex	17,785	22,269	Newark and Elizabethtown	1,171	1,521
Middlesex	15,956	17,890	Amboy	1,318	1,564
Monmouth†	16,918	19,872	Freehold	1,596	1,633
Somerset	12,296	12,815	Boundbrook	1,810	1,863
Morris	16,216	17,750	Morristown	636	775
Total 13	184,139	211,149		11,423	12,422

Bays, Ponds, Rivers and Canals.] New-Jersey is washed, on the east and south-east, by Hudson river and the ocean; and on the west by the river Delaware.

The most remarkable bays are, Arthur Kull, or Newark bay, formed by the union of Passaik and Hackinsak rivers. This bay opens to the right and left, and embraces Staten Island. There is a long bay formed by a beach, four or five miles from the shore, extending along the coast north-east and south-west, from Manasquand river, in Monmouth county, almost to Cape May. Through this beach are a number of inlets, by which the bay communicates with the ocean.

On the top of a mountain, in Morris county, is a lake or pond, three miles in length, and from a mile to a mile and a half in breadth, from which proceeds a continual stream. It is in some places deep. The water is of a sea-green colour; but when taken up in a tumbler is, like the water of the ocean, clear and of a crystalline colour.

The rivers in this state, though not large, are numerous. A traveller in passing the common road from New-York to Philadelphia, crosses on handsome bridges four considerable rivers, viz. the Hackinsak and Passaik, between Bergen and Newark, the Raritan by Brunswick, and the Delaware. The Hackinsak rises in Bergen county, runs a southwardly course, and empties into Newark bay. At the ferry, near its mouth, it is 460 yards wide, and is navigable 15 miles.

Passaik is a very crooked river, It rises in a large swamp in Morris county. Its general course is from W. N. W. to E. S. E. until it mingles with the Hackinsak at the head of Newark bay. It is navigable about 10 miles, and is 230 yards wide at the ferry. The cataract (or Great falls) in this river, is one of the greatest natural curiosities in the state. The river is about 40 yards wide, and moves

* These seven counties lie from S. to N. on Delaware river. Cape May and Gloucester extend across to the sea.

† These 4 counties lie from N. to S. on the eastern side of the state.

in a slow gentle current, until coming within a short distance of a deep cleft in a rock, which crosses the channel, it descends and falls above 70 feet perpendicularly, in one entire sheet. One end of the cleft, which was evidently made by some violent convulsion in nature, is closed; at the other, the water rushes out with incredible swiftness, forming an acute angle with its former direction, and is received into a large bason, whence it takes a winding course through the rocks, and spreads into a broad smooth stream. The cleft is from 4 to 12 feet broad. The falling of the water occasions a cloud of vapour to arise, which, by floating amidst the sun-beams, presents to the view rainbows, that add beauty to the tremendous scene. The new manufacturing town of Patterson is erected upon the Great Falls in this river. The western bank of the river, between Newark and the falls, affords one of the pleasantest roads for a party of pleasure in New-Jersey. The bank being high, gives the traveller an elevated and extensive view of the opposite shore, which is low and fertile, forming a landscape picturesque and beautiful. Many handsome country seats adorn the sides of this river; and there are elegant situations for more. Gentlemen of fortune might here display their taste to advantage. The fish of various kinds with which this river abounds, while they would furnish the table with an agreeable repast, would afford the sportsman an innocent and manly amusement.

Raritan river is formed by two considerable streams, called the north and south branches; one of which has its source in Morris, the other in Hunterdon county. It passes by Brunswick and Amboy, and mingles with the waters of the Arthur Kull Sound, and helps to form the fine harbour of Amboy. It is a mile wide at its mouth, 250 yards at Brunswick, and is navigable about 16 miles. It is supposed that this river is capable of a very steady lock navigation, as high as the junction of the north and south branches; and thence up the south branch to Grandin's bridge in Kingwood. Thence to Delaware river is 10 or 12 miles. It is supposed a portage will be here established by a turnpike road; or the waters of the Raritan may be united with those of the Delaware, by a canal from the south branch of the Raritan to Musconetcony river, which empties into the Delaware—or from Capoolong creek, a water of the Raritan, emptying at Grandin's bridge, and Necessackaway, a water of the Delaware. It is supposed also that an inland navigation from Philadelphia to New-York may be effected by proceeding up the Asanpink, (a water of the Delaware, emptying at Trenton) towards Princeton; and from thence by a canal to the Millstone, a water of the river to New-Brunswick.

At Raritan hills, through which this river passes, is a small cascade, where the water falls 15 or 20 feet, very romantically between two rocks. This river, opposite to Brunswick, is so shallow that it is fordable at low water with horses and carriages, but a little below it deepens so fast that a 20 gun ship may ride securely at any time of tide. The tide, however, rises so high that large shallops pass a mile above the ford; so that it is no uncommon thing to see vessels of considerable burden riding at anchor, and a number of large river craft lying above, some dry, and others on their beam ends for want of water, within gun-shot of each other. Delaware river divides New-Jersey and Pennsylvania.

Besides these are Cesarea river, or Cohansey creek, which rises in Salem county, and is about thirty miles in length, and navigable for vessels of a hundred tons to Bridgetown, twenty miles from its mouth. Mulicus river divides the counties of Gloucester and Burlington, and is navigable twenty miles for vessels of sixty tons. Maurice river rises in Gloucester county, runs southwardly about forty miles, and is navigable for vessels of a hundred tons, fifteen miles, and for shallops ten miles farther. Alloway creek, in the county of Salem, is navigable sixteen miles for shallops, with several obstructions of draw-bridges. Ancocus creek, in Burlington county, is also navigable sixteen miles. These, with many other smaller streams, empty into the Delaware, and carry down the produce which their fertile banks and the neighbouring country afford.

That part of the state which borders on the sea, is indented with a great number of small rivers and creeks, such as Great Egg harbour and Little Egg harbour rivers, Navesink, Shark, Matiticung and Forked rivers, which, as the country is flat, are navigable for small craft, almost to their sources.

Paulin's Kiln, in Sussex county, is navigable for craft 15 miles; and the Musconetcony, which divides Hunterdon from Sussex, is capable of beneficial improvement, as is the Pequest or Pequasset, between the two last mentioned rivers.

Racoon creek runs into Delaware river; it is navigable 17 miles for shallops, 23 for batteaux. This creek and Maurice river rise in the same vicinity. Old Man's creek is navigable for shallops 10 miles. Timber creek mingles with Delaware river two miles below Gloucester, navigable for shallops 16 or 17 miles. Salem creek is navigable to Salem; a branch of it may be ascended 30 miles farther. Martin's creek is navigable 20 or 30 miles. These creeks are serpentine, and the distances mentioned are according to this lengthened course of the streams.

This state is remarkable for mill-seats, 1100 of which are already improved; 500 with flour-mills, and the rest with saw-mills, fulling-mills, forges, furnaces, slitting and rolling-mills, paper, powder and oil-mills.

Sandy Hook, or point, is in the township of Middletown; and on this point stands a light-house, 100 feet high, built by the citizens of New-York.

Bridges.] A neat wooden bridge, 1000 feet in length, over the Hackinsak, and another over the Passaik river, 500 feet long, connected by a very long causeway, have been lately erected at a great expense. The post road from New-York to Philadelphia passes over these bridges; but the route is more circuitous, and the roads more disagreeable than the former way over the old ferries, where, in the opinion of many, the bridges should have been built.

Another bridge over Raritan river, opposite the city of Brunswick, about 1000 feet in length, and wide enough for two carriages to pass abreast, besides a foot-way, was completed at a great expense in the fall of 1795. The wood work of the bridge rests on 11 neat stone pillars, besides the abutments. This is a very neat and expensive bridge.

A handsome bridge over the Delaware, below the falls at Trenton, has lately been built, which is a great convenience in passing between Philadelphia and New-York.

Face of the Country, Mountains, Soil and Productions.] The counties of Sussex, Morris, and the northern part of Bergen, are mountainous. The South Mountain, which is one ridge of the great Allegany Range, crosses this state in about latitude 41°. This mountain embosoms such amazing quantities of iron ore, that it may not improperly be called the *Iron Mountain.* The Kittatinny ridge passes through this state, north of the South Mountain. Several spurs from these mountains are projected in a southern direction. One passes between Springfield and Chatham. Another runs west of it, by Morristown, Baskinridge and Vealtown. The interior country is, in general, agreeably variegated with hills and vallies. The southern counties, which lie along the sea-coast, are pretty uniformly flat and sandy. The noted Highlands of Navesink and Center Hill, are almost the only hills within the distance of many miles from the sea-coast. The Highlands of Navesink are on the sea-coast near Sandy-Hook, in the township of Middletown, and are the first lands that are discovered by mariners, as they come upon the coast. They rise about 600 feet above the surface of the water.

As much as five eighths of most of the southern counties, or one fourth of the whole state, is almost a sandy barren, unfit in many parts for cultivation. The land on the sea-coast in this, like that in the more southern states, has every appearance of *made ground.* The soil is generally a light sand. Often at the depth of 10, 20 or 30 feet, wood, roots and reeds are found; and, by digging, on an average, about 50 feet below the surface, (which can be done, even at the distance of 20 or 30 miles from the sea, without any impediment from rocks or stones) you come to salt marsh. The gentleman, who gave this information, adds, "I have seen an oystershell that would hold a pint, which was dug out of the marsh, at 50 feet deep, in digging a well." "About seven years since," continues my informer, "at Long Branch, in the county of Monmouth, in the banks of the Atlantick, which were much torn by a great rise of the sea in a violent easterly storm, was discovered the skeleton of some huge carnivorous animal. The country people who first saw it had so little curiosity as to suffer it to be wholly destroyed, except a jaw tooth which I saw. This was about two and a half inches wide, five inches long, and as many deep. The person who helped to take it out of the bank, assured me there was one rib seven feet four inches, and another four feet long." The bones of another of these animals have lately been discovered, in a meadow, in the county of Gloucester, on the river Delaware, by a negro, who was digging a ditch three or four feet deep. Part of these bones were sent to Philadelpia. To account for these curious phenomena is not my business. This is left for the ingenious naturalist, who has abilities and leisure to compare facts and appearances of this kind, and who probably may thence draw conclusions which may throw much light on the ancient natural history of this country.

This state has all the varieties of soil, from the worst to the best kind. It has a great proportion of barrens. The good land in the southern

counties lies principally on the banks of rivers and creeks. The soil on these banks is generally a stiff clay; and while in a state of nature, produces various species of oak, hickory, poplar, chesnut, ash, gum, &c. The barrens produce little else but shrub oaks and yellow pines. These sandy lands yield an immense quantity of bog-iron ore, which is worked up to great advantage in the iron works in these counties. There are large bodies of salt meadow along the lower part of the Delaware river and bay, which afford a plentiful pasture for cattle in summer, and hay in winter; but the flies and musketoes frequent these meadows in large swarms, in the months of June, July, and August, and prove very troublesome, both to man and beast. In Gloucester and Cumberland counties are several large tracts of banked meadow. Their vicinity to Philadelphia renders them highly valuable. Along the sea coast the inhabitants subsist principally by feeding cattle on the salt meadows, and by the fish of various kinds, such as rock, drum, shad, perch, &c. black turtle, crabs, and oysters, which the sea, rivers, and creeks afford in great abundance. They raise Indian corn, rye, potatoes, &c. but not for exportation. Their swamps afford lumber, which is easily conveyed to a good market. The sugar maple tree is common in Sussex county upon the Delaware.

In the hilly and mountainous parts of the state, which are not too rocky for cultivation, the soil is of a stronger kind, and covered in its natural state with stately oaks, hickories, chesnuts, &c. and when cultivated produces wheat, rye, Indian corn, buck wheat, oats, barley, flax, and fruits of all kinds common to the climate. The land in this hilly country is good for grazing, and farmers feed great numbers of cattle for New-York and Philadelphia markets; and many of them keep large daries, as there are large tracts of fine meadows between the hills.

The orchards in many parts of the state equal any in the United States, and their cider is said, and not without reason, to be the best in the world. It is pretty certain that it cannot be surpassed in goodness.

The markets of New-York and Philadelphia receive a very considerable proportion of their supplies from the contiguous parts of New-Jersey. And it is worthy of remark, that these contiguous parts are exceedingly well calculated, as to the nature and fertility of their soils, to afford these supplies; and the intervention of a great number of navigable rivers and creeks, renders it very convenient to market their produce. These supplies consist of vegetables of many kinds, apples, pears, peaches, plums, strawberries cherries, and other fruits; cider in large quantities and of the best quality, butter, cheese, beef, pork, mutton, and the lesser meats.

Trade.] The trade of this state is carried on almost solely with and from those two great commercial cities, New-York on one side, and Philadelphia on the other: though it wants not good ports of its own. Several attempts have been made by the legislature, to secure to the state its own natural advantages, by granting extraordinary privileges to merchants, who would settle at Amboy and Burlington, two very commodious ports. But the people having long been accustomed to send their produce to the markets of Philadelphia and New-York, and

of course having their correspondencies established, and their mode of dealing fixed, they find it difficult to turn their trade from the old channel. Besides, in these large cities, where are so many able merchants, and so many wants to be supplied, credits are more easily obtained, and a better and quicker market is found for produce, than could be expected in towns less populous and flourishing. These and other causes of the same kind, have hitherto rendered abortive the encouragements held out by the legislature.

The articles exported, besides those already mentioned, are wheat, flour, horses, live cattle, hams, which are celebrated as being among the best in the world, lumber, flaxseed, leather, iron in great quantities, in pigs and bars, and formerly copper ore ; but the mines have not been worked since the commencement of the late war. The imports consist chiefly of West-India goods.

Manufactures and Agriculture.] The manufactures of this state have hitherto been very inconsiderable, not sufficient to supply its own consumption, if we except the articles of iron, nails, and leather. A spirit of industry and improvement, particularly in manufactures, has, however, greatly increased within a few years. Most of the families in the country, and many in the populous towns, are clothed in strong, decent homespun ; and it is a happy circumstance for our country, that this plain American dress is every day growing more fashionable, not only in this but in all the states.

In Trenton, Newark and Elizabethtown, are a considerable number of very valuable tanneries, where excellent leather in large quantities is made, and a part of it exported to the neighbouring markets. Newark is the seat of a considerable shoe manufactory. In 1796, the leather made in nine large tanneries in this place, was chiefly manufactured into shoes, by about 200 workmen, who at that period made annually about 100,000 pair of shoes. Steel was manufactured at Trenton in the time of the war, but not considerably since. In Gloucester county is a glass-house. Paper-mills, and nail manufactories are erected and worked to good advantage in several parts of the state. Wheat also is manufactured into flour, and Indian corn into meal, to good account, in the western counties, where wheat is the staple commodity. But the iron manufacture is, of all others, the greatest source of wealth to the state. Iron-works are erected in Gloucester, Burlington, Sussex, Morris and other counties. The mountains in the county of Morris give rise to a number of streams necessary and convenient for these works, and at the same time furnish a copious supply of wood and ore of a superior quality. In this county alone are no less than seven rich iron mines, from which might be taken ore sufficient to supply the United States ; and to work it into iron are two furnaces, two rolling and slitting-mills, and about 30 forges, containing from two to four fires each. These works produce annually about 540 tons of bar-iron, 800 tons of pigs, besides large quantities of hollow-ware, sheet-iron and nail-rods. In the whole state, it is supposed there is yearly made about 1200 tons of bar-iron, 1200 do. of pigs, 80 do. of nail-rods, exclusive of hollow-ware, and various other castings, of which vast quantities are made.

Early in the late war, a powder-mill was erected in Morristown by Col. Ford, who was enabled, by the ample supply of salt-petre furnished by the patriotick inhabitants, to make a considerable quantity of that valuable and necessary article, at a time when it was most needed; and when the enemy were at the door, it afforded a timely supply.

A manufacturing company was incorporated in 1791, by the legislature of this state, and favoured with very great privileges. The better to encourage every kind of manufacture, a subscription was opened, under the patronage of the secretary of the treasury of the United States, for this important purpose. Each subscriber promised to pay, for every share annexed to his name, 400 dollars to the trustees appointed to receive it. A sum of upwards of 500,000 dollars was almost immediately subscribed, and the directors of the association took the proper measures to carry into effect their extensive plan. They fixed on the Great Falls, in Passaik river, and the ground adjoining for the erection of the mills and the town, which they called PATTERSON, in honour of Judge Patterson, then governour of New-Jersey. Every advantage appeared to be concentrated in this delightful situation, to make it one of the most eligible in the United States, for the permanent establishment of manufactures. A large sum of money has been expended, but the expectations of the proprietors have not been realized.

Although the bulk of the inhabitants in this state are farmers, yet agriculture has not been improved (a few instances excepted) to that degree which, from long experience, we might rationally expect, and which the fertility of the soil in many places seems to encourage. A great part of the inhabitants are Dutch, who, although they are in general neat and industrious farmers, have very little enterprize, and seldom adopt any new improvements in husbandry, because, through habits, and want of education to expand and liberalize their minds, they think their old modes of tilling the best. Indeed this is the case with the great body of the common people, and proves an almost insurmountable obstacle to agricultural improvements.

Mines and Minerals.] This state embosoms vast quantities of iron and copper ore. The iron ore is of two kinds; one is capable of being manufactured into malleable iron, and is found in mountains and in low barrens; the other, called bog ore, grows in rich bottoms, and yields iron of a hard, brittle quality, and is commonly manufacture into hollow-ware, and used sometimes instead of stone in building.

A number of copper mines have been discovered in different parts of the state. One in Bergen county, between Passaik and Hackinsak rivers, near their confluence. This mine was discovered about the year 1719.

By the year 1731, the proprietor, Arant Schuyler, had exported 1,386 tons of ore. The mines were wrought at different times till the American war; from that time they were neglected till 1793, when a company was formed, and engaged in the work with new vigour. Their exertions have been almost entirely preparatory; yet lately they had about 50,000 dollars worth of ore on hand. When

pure copper sold in England for £75 sterling per ton, this ore was shipped for England at 70l. The ore never was more rich than lately, yielding about 75 per cent. and will be more cheaply procured in future. The ore for each hundred weight of copper has produced from 4 to 7 ounces of silver, and a small quantity of gold. There is no reason to believe that the veins of ore are likely to fail. The mine at present is in a most advantageous and promising situation. It is supposed there are mines worth exploring in Boundbrook, Pluckemin, Rocky-hill, Woodbridge and Brunswick.

The following account of a copper mine at New-Brunswick, is given by a gentleman of distinction, well informed upon the subject:

"About the years 1748, 1749, 1750, several lumps of virgin copper from 5 to 30 pounds weight, (in the whole upwards of 200 pounds) were ploughed up in a field belonging to Phillip French, Esq. within a quarter of a mile of New-Brunswick. This induced Mr. Elias Boudinot, of the city of Philadelphia, to take a lease of Mr. French of this land, for 99 years, in order to search for copper ore, a body of which he concluded must be contained in this hill. He took in several partners, and about the year 1751, opened a pit in the low grounds, about 2 or 300 yards from the river. He was led to this spot by a friend of his, who, a little before, passing by at 3 o'clock in the morning, observed a body of flame arise out of the ground, as large as a common sized man, and soon after die away. He drove a stake on the spot. About 15 feet deep, Mr. Boudinot came on a vein of bluish stone, about 2 feet thick, between two perpendicular loose bodies of red rock, covered with a sheet of pure virgin copper, a little thicker than gold leaf. This bluish stone was filled with sparks of virgin copper, very much like copper filings, and now and then a large lump of virgin copper from five to thirty pounds weight. He followed this vein almost thirty feet, when, the water coming in very fast, the expense became too great for the company's capital. A stamping mill was erected, when by reducing the bluish stone to a powder, and washing it in large tubs, the stone was carried off, and the fine copper preserved, by which means many tons of the purest copper was sent to England without ever passing through the fire; but labour was too high to render it possible for the company to proceed. Sheets of copper about the thickness of two pennies, and three feet square, on an average, have been taken from between the rocks, within four feet of the surface, in several parts of the hill. At about 50 or 60 feet deep, they came to a body of fine solid ore, in the midst of this bluish vein, but between rocks of a white flinty spar, which, however, was worked out in a few days. These works lie now wholly neglected, although the vein when left was richer than ever it had been. There was also a very rich vein of copper ore discovered at Rockyhill, in Somerset county, which has also been neglected from the heavy expense attending the working of it. There have been various attempts made to search the hills beyond Boundbrook, known by the name of Van Horne's Mountain, but for the same reason is now neglected. This mountain discovers the greatest appearance of copper ore, of any place in the state. It may be picked up on the surface of many parts of it. A smelting furnace was erected before the revolution in the neigh-

bourhood, by two Germans, who were making considerable profit on their work, until the British destroyed it in the beginning of the war. The inhabitants made it worth their while, by collecting the ore from the surface and by partially digging into the hill, to supply the furnace. Besides, a company opened a very large shaft on the side of the hill, from which also a great deal of valuable ore and some virgin copper were taken. Two lumps of virgin copper were found here in the year 1754, which weighed 1,900 pounds."

A lead mine has been discovered in Hopewell township, four miles from Trenton. There is said to be coal on Raritan river, below Brunswick, and at Pluckemin, and turf in Bethlehem, at the head of its south branch; and also at Springfield on Rahway river, which is remarkable for mill seats.

A mine of the plaster of Paris has lately been discovered in the county of Sussex, which promises to be valuable to the neighbouring inhabitants.

In the town of Newark, and the one adjoining it on the north, there are immense quarries of stone, of a very valuable kind, and much used in building. The quarries in Newark alone, it has been estimated, would now rent for £1,000 a year, the number of workmen to be limited. Their value is annually increasing. A *slate quarry* has lately been discovered in Hunterdon county, within 300 yards of Delaware river, 75 miles above Philadelphia, which, it is said, promises to yield *slate* of a superior quality to any that has been discovered in the United States, and equal to any imported from Europe. It has been purchased by Mr. James Bell, who contemplates opening it.

[*U. S. Gazette.*]

Curious Springs.] In the upper part of the county of Morris, is a cold mineral spring, which is frequented by valetudinarians, and its waters have been used with very considerable success. In the township of Hanover, in this county, on a ridge of hills, are a number of wells, which regularly ebb and flow about six feet, twice in every 24 hours. These wells are nearly 40 miles from the sea, in a straight line. In the county of Cape May, is a spring of fresh water, which boils up from the bottom of a salt water creek, which runs nearly dry at low tide; but at flood tide, is covered with water directly from the ocean, to the depth of three or four feet; yet in this situation, by letting down a bottle well corked, through the salt water into the spring, and immediately drawing the cork with a string prepared for that purpose, it may be drawn up full of fine, untainted, fresh water. There are springs of this kind in other parts of the state. In the county of Hunterdon, near the top of Muskonetcong Mountain, is a noted medicinal spring, to which invalids resort from every quarter. It issues from the side of a mountain, and is conveyed into an artificial reservoir for the accommodation of those who wish to bathe in, as well as to drink the waters. It is a strong chalybeate and very cold. These waters have been used with very considerable success; but perhaps the exercise necessary to get to them, and the purity of the air in this lofty situation, aided by a lively imagination, have as great efficacy in curing the patient as the waters.

A curious spring has been discovered, about 200 yards from the south branch of Raritan river, from which, even in the driest seasons, a small stream issues, except when the wind continues to blow from the north-west for more than two days successively, when it ceases to run; and if the water be taken out of the cask placed in the ground, it will remain empty until the wind changes, when it is again filled and flows as usual.

Caves, Monuments, &c.] In the township of Shrewsbury, in Monmouth county, on the side of a branch of Navesink river, is a remarkable cave, in which there are three rooms. The cave is about 30 feet long, and 15 feet broad. Each of the rooms is arched; the centre of the arch is about five feet from the bottom of the cave; the sides not more than two and a half. The mouth of the cave is small; the bottom is a loose sand; and the arch is formed in a soft rock, through the pores of which, the moisture is slowly exudated, and falls in drops on the sand below.

On Sandy Hook, about a mile from the light-house, is a monument, which was erected to the memory of the Hon. Hamilton D. Halliburton and 12 others, who were drowned on this coast, December 31, 1783.

Population.] According to the census of 1790, as given in the table, there were in this state 184,139 inhabitants, of whom 11,423 were slaves. The average population for every square mile was about 22. In 1800, the number of inhabitants was 211,149, or about 25 and one half for every square mile. The number of inhabitants in this state, was, in 1738, 47,369—1745, 61,403—1784, 140,435.

The average annual increase from 1738 to 1790 was 2,630, exclusive of emigrations, which, since 1783, have been numerous, to the country west of the Allegany mountains. These emigrations will lessen in proportion as the inhabitants turn their attention to manufactures.

Character, Manners and Customs.] Many circumstances concur to render these various in different parts of the state. The inhabitants are a collection of Low Dutch, Germans, English, Scotch, Irish, and New-Englanders, or their descendants. National attachment and mutual convenience have generally induced these several kinds of people to settle together in a body, and in this way their peculiar national manners, customs and character are still preserved, especially among the poorer class of people, who have little intercourse with any but those of their own nation. Religion, although its tendency is to unite people in those things that are essential to happiness, occasions wide differences as to manners, customs, and even character. The Presbyterian, the Quaker, the Episcopalian, the Baptist, the German and Low Dutch Calvinist, the Methodist and the Moravian, have each their distinguishing characteristicks, either in their worship, their discipline or their dress. There is still another characteristical difference, distinct from either of the others, which arises from the intercourse of the inhabitants with different states. The people in West-Jersey trade to Philadelphia, and of course imitate their fashions, and imbibe their manners. The inhabitants of East-Jersey trade to New-York, and regulate their fashions and manners according to those in New-York.

So that the difference in regard to fashions and manners between East and West Jersey, is nearly as great as between New-York and Philadelphia. Add to all these the differences common in all countries, arising from the various occupations of men, such as the Civilian, the Divine, the Lawyer, the Physician, the Mechanick, the clownish, the decent, and the respectable Farmer, all of whom have different pursuits, or pursue the same thing differently, and of course must have different ideas and manners ;—when we take into view all these differences, (and all these differences exist in New-Jersey, and many of them in all the other states) it cannot be expected that many general observations will apply. It may, however, in truth be said, that the people of New-Jersey are generally industrious, frugal and hospitable. There are, comparatively, but few men of learning in the state, nor can it be said that the people in general have a taste for the sciences. The poorer class, in which may be included a considerable proportion of the inhabitants of the whole state, are inattentive to the education of their children, who are but too generally left to grow up in ignorance. There are, however, a number of gentlemen of the first rank in abilities and learning in the civil offices of the state, and in the several learned professions.

It is not the business of a geographer to compliment the ladies ; nor would we be thought to do it when we say, that there is at least as great a number of industrious, discreet, amiable, genteel, and handsome women in New-Jersey, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, as in any of the United States.

Religion.] There are, in this state, about 50 Presbyterian congregations, subject to the care of three Presbyteries, viz. that of New-York, of New-Brunswick and Philadelphia. A part of the charge of New-York and Philadelphia Presbyteries lies in New-Jersey.

Besides these there are upwards of 40 congregations of Friends, 30 of the Baptists, 25 of Episcopalians, 28 of Dutch Reformed, 20 of the Methodists, and a settlement of Moravians. All these religious denominations live together in peace and harmony ; and are allowed, by the constitution of the state, to worship Almighty God agreeably to the dictates of their own consciences ; and are not compelled to attend or support any worship contrary to their own faith and judgment. All Protestant inhabitants, of peaceable behaviour, are eligible to the civil offices of the state.

Colleges, Academies, and Schools.] There is a college in New-Jersey, at Princeton, called Nassau Hall, founded by charter from John Hamilton, Esq. president of the council, about the year 1738, and enlarged by governour Belcher in 1747. The charter delegates a power of granting to " the students of said college, or to any others thought worthy of them, all such degrees as are granted in either of our universities or any other college in Great-Britain." It has 23 trustees. The governour of the state and the president of the college are, *ex officiis*, two of them.

The establishment consists of a president, three professors, two tutors, and a grammar master. The president is also professor of moral philosophy, history, and eloquence. There is a professor of mathematicks and natural philosophy, including astronomy and chymistry,

which is treated, not only in its relation to medicine, but to agriculture and manufactures, and there has lately been established a professorship of divinity. To the tutors is committed the instruction of the two lowest classes in the college. The grammar master teaches writing, arithmetick, and the elements of the Latin and Greek languages.

When young gentlemen have read the Greek Testament and those Latin writers which are commonly read in schools before Virgil, and are well versed in Mair's introduction to the making of Latin, they are permitted to enter the lowest class in the college. The tutors then direct their studies in the classicks, in arithmetick and geography, during two years. Two years more are spent in the higher sciences under the professors, and the president; who give lectures on the different subjects mentioned above; at the same time presenting to the students a compend or syllabus of their lectures, which they are required to commit to memory, and on which they are to be examined daily by the professor, and more particularly four times in the year before the whole faculty, and such other gentlemen as may please to attend. The senior class also, in order to their receiving the first degree in the arts, is required to undergo two examinations in the presence of the faculty, and the trustees of the college; one in the month of April, and the other in the month of August. All the examinations in this college, except the daily ones by the professors, are held in publick. Lectures on select subjects, of the evidences of revealed religion, of Jewish and Christian antiquities, and of sacred criticism, are given on the Sabbath evenings in the college hall, before all the students. Lectures on the system of divinity are given to a theological class, consisting of Bachelors of Arts, on Thursday evenings. On Tuesday evenings the members of the same class, in presence of the president, and such others as may choose to attend, produce in rotation, essays on some head of theology, or sermons on some text of scripture, which are subjected to the free remarks and criticisms of all who are present.

On Friday evenings, during the winter session the graduates who reside in the college, and in the town, meet for the purpose of improving themselves in style and composition, and for the discussion of questions literary, moral, and political. The greater part of the students are also divided into two societies for similar purposes, which meet, the one on Monday, the other on Wednesday evenings. Between these societies an ardent emulation exists, which is very friendly to the improvement of the students, and the good government of the institution. The members of the two societies, in all publick exhibitions, appear with different badges to distinguish them, which is another mean of promoting their emulation. It is a point of honour with them to admit none into their respective bodies who maintain a remarkably bad standing in their class. If any member of either of the societies is subjected to any stigma or censure by the faculty of the college, for immorality or bad scholarship, he infallibly meets with a correspondent censure in his society; or, if the fault be considerable, is expelled from it.

The college being founded on private liberality and zeal, and not being yet taken under the patronage of the state, its reputation, and even its existence, depends on the improvement of the students and the

exactness of its moral discipline, which the associations before mentioned contribute greatly to promote.

There are in the winter session generally from 70 to 80 students in the four classes of the college, exclusive of the grammar school. In the summer session there are from 80 to 90. A considerable number of Bachelors of Arts, who are students of theology or law, constantly reside in the college, or the town, and are partakers in those exercises that have been already mentioned.

The annual income of the college at present, by fees of the students and otherwise, is about £1,000. It has also funds in possession, through the extraordinary liberality of Mr. James Leslie of New-York and Mrs. Esther Richards of Rahway, to the amount of 10,000 dolls. for the education of poor and pious youth for the ministry of the gospel; and the reversion of an estate in Philadelphia for the same purpose, of between 2 and £300 per annum, a legacy of the late Mr. Hugh Hodge, a man of eminent piety, which is to come to the college at the death of a very worthy and aged widow.

The college library was almost wholly destroyed during the late war, and again in March 1802, by a fire, supposed kindled by an incendiary; but out of the remains and by liberal donations it has collected one of about 2 or 3000 volumes. There are besides in the college, two libraries belonging to the two literary societies into which the students have arranged themselves, and the library of the president, consisting of 1,000 volumes more, is always open to the students.

Before the war, this college was furnished with a philosophical apparatus, worth £500, which (except the elegant Orrery constructed by Mr. Rittenhouse) was almost entirely destroyed by the British army in the late war.

The college edifice was originally of stone, 180 feet in length, 54 in breadth, and four stories high, divided into forty-two convenient chambers for the accomodation of the students, besides a dining hall, chapel, and room for the library. Since the fire it has been rebuilt of the same dimensions. Its situation is elevated and exceedingly pleasant and healthful. It is remarkable, that since the removal of the college to Princeton in 1756, there have been but 5 or 6 deaths among the students. The view from the college balcony is extensive and charming.

The college has been under the care of a succession of presidents eminent for piety and learning; and has furnished a number of civilians, divines, and physicians of the first rank in America.*

A charter for a college, at Brunswick, was granted just before the war, in consequence of an application from a body of the Dutch

* *Accessus.*	*Presidents.*	*Exitus.*
1746	Rev. Jonathan Dickinson,	1747
1748	Rev. Aaron Burr,	1757
1758	Rev. Jonathan Edwards,	1758
1758	Rev. Samuel Davies,	1760
1761	Rev. Samuel Finley, D. D.	1766
1767	Rev. John Witherspoon, D. D.	1794
1795, October 30	Rev. Samuel Stanhope Smith, D. D	

church. Its funds, raised wholly by free donations, amounted, soon after its establishment, to four thousand pounds; but they were considerably diminished by the war. This college, which was named Queen's college, at present exists only in name.

There are several good academies in this state. One at Trenton, in which are about eighty students in the different branches. It has a fund of about one hundred and fifty pounds per annum, arising from the interest on publick securities. Another in Hackinsak, in the county of Bergen, of upwards of a hundred scholars. There is another at Orangedale, in the county of Essex, consisting of nearly as many scholars as any of the others, furnished with able instructors and good accommodations. Another has lately been opened at Elizabethtown, and consists of upwards of twenty students in the languages and is increasing. An academy, has been established at Burlington, under the direction of seven trustees, and the instruction of two preceptors. The system of education adopted in this academy is designed to prepare the scholars for the study of the more difficult classicks, and the higher branches of science in a college or university. At Newark, an academy was founded in June, 1792, and promises to be a useful institution. At Woodbury and Salem there are also academies. Besides these, there are grammar schools at Springfield, Morristown, Bordenton and Amboy. There are no regular establishments for common schools in the state. The usual mode of education is for the inhabitants of a village or neighbourhood to join in affording a temporary support for a school-master, upon such terms as are mutually agreeable. But the encouragement which these occasional teachers meet with, is generally such, as that no person of abilities adequate to the business, will undertake it; and of course, little advantage is derived from these schools. The improvement in these common schools is generally in proportion to the pay of the teacher. It is therefore much to be regretted that the legislature do not take up the subject and adopt some such method of suppporting publick schools as has been practised upon with visible good success in some of the New-England states.

Chief Towns.] There are several towns in this state, nearly of equal size and importance, and none that has more than two or three hundred houses compactly built. Trenton is one of the largest towns in New-Jersey, and the capital of the state. It is situated on the north-east side of the river Delaware, opposite the Falls, nearly in the centre of the state, from north to south, in lat. 40° 15′, and about 20′ east of the meridian of Philadelphia. The river is not navigable above these falls, except for boats, which will carry from five to seven hundred bushels of wheat. This town, with Lamberton, which joins it on the south, contains about 300 houses, and about 2,500 inhabitants. Here the legislature statedly meets, the supreme court sits, and most of the publick offices are kept. The inhabitants have lately erected a handsome court-house 100 feet by 50, with a semi-hexagon at each end, over which is to be a balustrade. In the neighbourhood of this pleasant town, are several gentlemen's seats, finely situated on the banks of the Delaware, and ornamented with taste and elegance. This town being a thoroughfare between the

eastern parts of the state and Philadelphia, has a considerable inland trade.

Burlington (city) extends three miles along the Delaware, and one mile back, at right angles, into the county of Burlington, and is twenty miles above Philadelphia by water, and seventeen by land. The island, which is the most populous part of the city, is a mile and a quarter in length, and three quarters of a mile in breadth. It has four entrances over bridges and causeways, and a quantity of bank meadow adjoining. On the island are about one hundred and sixty houses, 1000 white, and 100 black inhabitants. But few of the negroes are slaves. The main streets are conveniently spacious, and mostly ornamented with trees in the fronts of the houses, which are regularly arranged. The Delaware, opposite the town, is about a mile wide; and under shelter of Mittinnicunk and Burlington islands, affords a safe and convenient harbour. It is commodiously situated for trade, but is too near the opulent city of Philadelphia to admit of any considerable increase of foreign commerce. There are two houses for publick worship in the town, one for the Friends or Quakers, who are the most numerous, and one for Episcopalians. The other publick buildings are two market-houses, a court-house, and the best gaol in the state. Besides these, there is an academy, already mentioned, a free school, a nail manufactory, and an excellent distillery, if that can be called excellent which produces a poison both of health and morals.

The city was a free port under the state. The mayor, recorder and aldermen hold a commercial court, when the matter in controversy is between foreigners and foreigners, or between foreigners and citizens.* The island of Burlington was laid out, and the first settlements made as early as 1677. In 1682, the island of Mittinnicunk, or Free School Island, was given for the use of the island of Burlington; the yearly profits arising from it (which amount to one hundred and eighty pounds) are appropriated for the education of poor children.

Perth Amboy (city) took its name from James Drummond, earl of Perth; and Ambo, the Indian word for point, and stands on a neck of land included between Raritan river and Arthur Kull Sound. Its situation is high and healthy. It lies open to Sandy Hook, and has one of the best harbours on the continent. Vessels from sea may enter it in one tide, in almost any weather. Great efforts have been made, and legislative encouragements offered, to render it a place of trade, but without success. This town was early incorporated with city privileges and continued to send two members to the general assembly until the revolution. Until this event, it was the capital of East-Jersey; and the legislature and supreme court used to sit here and at Burlington alternately.

Brunswick (city) was incorporated in 1784, and is situated on the south-west side of Raritan river, over which a fine bridge has lately been built, twelve miles above Amboy. It is about the size of Trenton. Its situation is low and unpleasant, being on the bank of a riv-

* This court has been removed to Mount Holly on Rancocous Creek.

er, and under a high hill which rises back of the town. The ice, at the breaking up of the river in winter, frequently lodges on the shallow fording place, just opposite the town, and forms a temporary dam, which occasions the water to rise many feet above its usual height, and sometimes to overflow the lower floors of those houses which are not guarded against this inconvenience, by having their foundations elevated. The streets are raised and paved with stone. The water in the springs and wells is genenerally bad. The inhabitants are beginning to build on the hill above the town, which is very pleasant, and commands a pretty prospect. The citizens have a considerable inland trade, and several small vessels belonging to the port.

Princeton is a pleasant village of about 80 houses, 52 miles from New-York, and 42 from Philadelphia. Its publick buildings are a large college edifice of stone, already described, and a Presbyterian church built of brick. Its situation is remarkably healthy.

Elizabethtown (borough) is 15 miles from New-York. Its situation is pleasant, and its soil equal in fertility to any in the state. In the compact part of the town, there are about 150 houses. The publick buildings are a very handsome Presbyterian brick church, an Episcopal church also of brick, and an academy. This is one of the oldest towns in the state. It was purchased of the Indians as early as 1664, and was settled soon after.

Newark is seven miles from New-York. It is a handsome, flourishing town, about the size of Elizabethtown, and has two Presbyterian churches, one of which is of stone, supplied from the quarries in this town, already described, and is the largest and most elegant building in the state. Besides these, there is an Episcopal church, a court-house, a gaol, and an academy. This town is celebrated for the excellence of its cider, and is the seat of the largest shoe manufactory in the state.

Swedesborough stands on Racoon creek, has a number of good houses, and a large elegant house for publick worship. It was so named by the Swedes, who are numerous in this part of the state, though they have now mingled with German, Irish, Scotch and English people.

Salem is an ancient town. Here is the largest Quaker meeting-house in the state; an Episcopal church, a Baptist and Methodist meeting-house, a court-house and gaol. The dwelling-houses are about a hundred, mostly of brick, some of them elegant. The town stands on a creek 8½ miles from Delaware bay.

Practice of Physick.] There is a Medical Society in this state, consisting of about 30 of their most respectable physicians, who meet twice a year. No person is admitted to the practice of physick, without a license from the supreme court, founded on a certificate from this society, or at least two of its members, testifying his skill and abilities. It is remarkable, that in the county of Cape May, no regular physician has ever found support. Medicine has been administered by women, except in some extraordinary cases.

Practice of Law.] No person is permitted to practise as an attorney in any court without a license from the governour. This cannot be

obtained, unless the candidate shall be above twenty-one years of age, and shall have served a regular clerkship with some licensed attorney for 4 years, and have taken a degree in some publick college, otherwise he must serve five years. This regulation is considered by some a depreciation of rights in regard to citizens of other states, and a bar to the progress of knowledge. He must also submit to an examination by three of the most eminent counsellors in the state, in the presence of the judges of the supreme court. After three years practice as an attorney, he becomes a candidate for a counsellor's license, which is granted on a like examination. Many of the people here, however, as in other states, think (because perhaps they are instruments in obliging them to pay their debts) that the lawyers know too much. But their knowledge will not injure those who are innnocent, and who will let them alone. Experience has verified this observation in the county of Cape May. A few years ago no lawyer lived within 60 miles of the seat of government in that county, and it was seldom that they attended their courts.

New Inventions.] Mr. Joseph Condit, jun. of Bloomfield in this state, has discovered a method of manufacturing paper from the *shavings of tanned leather*, called *currier's shavings*, for which he has obtained a patent.

Constitution.] The government of this state, agreeably to their constitution, is vested in a governour, legislative council, and general assembly. The governour is chosen annually, by the council and assembly jointly, and is styled, "Governour and commander in chief in and over the state of New-Jersey, and the territories thereunto belonging, chancellor and ordinary in the same." The legislative council is composed of one member from each county, chosen annually by the people. They must be worth £1000 in real and personal estate within the county, and have been freeholders and inhabitants of the counties they represent for one year. The general assembly is composed of three members from each county chosen as above; each of them must be worth £500 real and personal estate within the county, and have been freeholders and inhabitants as above. Each of these, on taking his seat in the legislature, must swear "that he will not assent to any law, vote or proceeding, which shall appear to him injurious to the publick welfare of the state, or that shall annul or repeal that part of the constitution which establishes annual elections, nor that part respecting trial by jury, nor that part which secures liberty of conscience."

The governour sits in, and presides over the legislative council, and has a casting vote in their debates. His privy or executive council is composed of any three members of the legislative council; and the governour and any seven members of the council are a court of appeals in the last resort, as to points of law in civil cases, and possess a power of pardoning criminals in all cases whatsoever. The council choose one of their members to be vice-president, who, when the governour is absent from the state, possesses the supreme executive power. The council may originate any bills, excepting preparing and altering any money bill, which is the sole prerogative of the assembly. In every other respect their powers are equal. Every bill is read three

times in each house. None of the judges of the supreme court, or other courts, sheriffs, or any person possessed of any post of profit under the governour, except justices of the peace, is entitled to a seat in the assembly. The estate of a suicide is not forfeited for his offence.

Courts of Justice, Laws, &c.] The courts of justice in this state are, first, *Justices' courts*. A competent number of persons are appointed in each county by the council and assembly, in joint meeting, who are called justices of the peace, and continue in office five years, who, besides being conservators of the peace, agreeably to the English laws, are authorised to hold courts for the trial of causes under twelve pounds. From this court, persons aggrieved, may appeal to the quarter sessions. Secondly, *Courts of quarter sessions of the Peace*, are held quarterly in every county, by at least three of the justices. This court takes cognizance of breaches of the peace, and is generally regulated by the rules of the English law.

Thirdly, *Courts of Common Pleas*, which are held quarterly, by judges appointed for that purpose, in the same manner as the justices of the peace, and who are commonly of their number, and hold their commissions five years. This court may be held by a single judge, and has cognizance of demands to any amount, and is constructed on, and governed by, the principles of the English laws.

Fourthly, *Supreme courts*, which are held four times in a year, at Trenton, by three judges appointed for that purpose, who hold their offices three years, but one judge only is necessary to the holding of this court. This court has cognizance of all actions, both civil and criminal, throughout the state, having the united authority of the courts of king's bench, common pleas and exchequer, in England. The courts of oyer and terminer and nisi prius, commonly held once a year in each county, for the trial of causes arising in the county, and brought to issue in the supreme court, are properly branches of this court, and are held by one of the judges of it, except that in the courts of oyer and terminer, some of the gentlemen of the county are always added in the commission as assistants to the judge; but they cannot hold the court without him.

Fifthly, *Orphans' courts*, lately established by act of assembly, are held by the judges of the court of common pleas, *ex officiis*, and have cognizance of all matters relating to wills, administrations. &c.

Sixthly, *Court of Chancery*, held by the governour, *ex officio*, always open. It is a court of law and equity, founded on the same principles, and governed by the same rules as the court of chancery in England.

Seventhly, *High Court of Errors and Appeals*, composed of the governour, and seven of the council, and is a court of appeals in the last resort, in all causes of law.

All the English laws which had been practised upon in this state, and which are not repugnant to revolution principles, were adopted by the constitution, and very few alterations of consequence have since been made, except in the descent of the real estates, which, instead of descending to the eldest son, agreeably to the old feudal system, as formerly, are now divided (where there is no will) two shares to each son, and one share to each daughter; i. e. the sons have double

the daughters' portions, but all the sons have equal portions and all the daughters.

Military Strength.] The militia of this state in 1793, amounted to 19,077 between the ages of 18 and 45 years. The companies in uniform, included in this number, are 14 artillery, 21 horse, 11 grenadiers, and 26 infantry. The whole number of men capable of bearing arms amount to between 30 and 40,000.

History.] See Smith's History of New-Jersey, and Hazard's State Papers.

This state was the seat of war for several years, during the bloody contest between Great-Britain and America. Her losses both of men and property, in proportion to the population and wealth of the state, was greater than that of any other of the thirteen states. When General Washington was retreating through the Jersies, almost forsaken, her militia, for a considerable time, composed the strength of his army. There is hardly a town in the state that lay in the progress of the British army, that was not rendered signal by some enterprize or exploit. At Trenton the enemy received a check, which may be said, with justice, to have turned the tide of the war. At Princeton, the seat of the muses, they received another, which, united, obliged them to retire with precipitation, and take refuge in disgraceful winter quarters. But whatever honour this state might derive from the relation, it is not our business to give a particular description of battles or sieges; we leave this to the pen of the historian, and only observe in general, that the many military achievements performed by the Jersey soldiers, give this state a high rank among her sisters in a military view, and entitle her to a share of praise in the accomplishment of the late glorious revolution, that bears no proportion to her size.

Governours of New-Jersey, from the surrender of the government by the Proprietors in 1702, *to the present time.*

† Edward, viscount Cornbury, 1702 to 1708, removed and succeeded by

† John, lord Lovelace, 1708 to 1709, died and the government devolved to

Lt. Gov. Richard Ingoldsby, 1709 to 1710 when came in

† Brigadier Robert Hunter, 1710 to 1720, who resigned in favour of

† William Burnet, 1720 to 1727, removed and succeeded by

† John Montgomery, 1728 to 1731, died and was succeeded by

† William Crosby, 1731 to 1736, died and the government devolved to

John Anderson, President of the Council, 1736, by whose death, about two weeks after, the government devolved to

John Hamilton, President of the Council, 1736 to 1738.

Those marked † were governours in chief, and down to this time were governours of New-York and New-Jersey; but from 1738 forward, New-Jersey has had a separate governour.

† Lewis Morris, 1738 to 1746, died and the government devolved to
John Hamilton, President, 1746, by whose death it devolved to
John Reading, President, 1746 to 1747.
† Jonathan Belcher, 1747 to 1757, died and the government again devolved to
John Reading, President, 1757 to 1758.
Thomas Pownall, then governour of Massachusetts, being lieutenant-governour, arrived on the death of governour Belcher, but continued in the province a few days only.
† Francis Bernard, 1758 to 1760, removed to Boston and succeeded by
† Thomas Boone, 1760 to 1761, removed to South-Carolina and succeeded by
† Josiah Hardy, 1761 to 1763, removed and succeeded by
† William Franklin, 1763 to 1776, removed and succeeded by
† William Livingston, 1776 to 1790, died and succeeded by
† William Patterson, 1791 to 1794, resigned and succeeded by
† Richard Howell, 1794 to 1801, succeeded by
† Joseph Bloomfield, 1801.

PENNSYLVANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Mls.
Length 228 Breadth 156	between	0° 20′ E. and 5° W. longitude. 39° 43′ and 42° N. latitude.	46,000

Boundaries.] BOUNDED east by Delaware river, which divides it from New-Jersey; north by New-York and Lake Erie; north-west by a part of Lake Erie, where there is a good port; west by the state of Ohio and a part of Virginia; south by Virginia, Maryland and Delaware. The state lies in the form of a parallelogram. The north-west corner of this state, containing about 202,000 acres, was lately purchased of Congress by the state.

Civil Divisions.] Pennsylvania was divided into 35 counties in 1800, as mentioned in the following table.

Counties.	No. Towns.	No. Inhab.	Chief Towns.	No. Inhab.
City and County of Philadelphia	18	81,009	Philadelphia	41,220*
Montgomery	28	24,150	Norristown	922
Bucks	28	27,496	Newtown	781
Delaware	21	12,809	Chester	957
Chester	40	32,093	West-Chester	374
Lancaster	25	43,403	Lancaster	4,292
Berks	35	32,407	Reading	2,886
Northampton	30	30,062	Easton	1,055
Luzerne	19	12,839	Wilksburg	835
Dauphin	12	22,270	Harrisburg	1,472
Northumberland	24	27,797	Sunbury	613
Wayne	9	2,562		
Adams	16	13,172	Gettysburg	
Allegany	16	15,087	Pittsburg	1,565
Armstrong	3	2,399		
Beaver	6	5,776	Beaverton	
Bedford	12	12,039	Bedford	
Butler	4	3,916		
Crawford	2	2,346	Meadville	
Cumberland	18	25,386	Carlisle	2,032
Fayette	17	20,159	Union	1,719
Franklin	14	19,638	Chamberston	
Green	10	8,605	Waynesboro'	
Huntingdon	18	13,008	Huntingdon	1,251
Lycoming	10	5,414	Williamsport	
Mercer		3,220		
Mifflin & Center	12	13,609	Lewisburg & Bellefont	
Somerset	13	10,188	Somerset	
Venango	2	1,130	Franklin	
Warren	1	233	Warren	
Washington	22	28,298	Washington	
Westmoreland	14	22,726	Greensburgh	
York	18	25,643	York	
Erie	6	1,468	Erie	
Total 35	523	602,545		

The total number of acres in all the counties is reckoned at 29,634,840.

A considerable proportion of this state is divided into townships, which are not created by any special law of the legislature, but on application of a sufficient number of the citizens, in any neighbourhood, to the judges of the court of common pleas, and general quarter sessions, of the county. In each township, the freemen assemble annually to chose overseers of the poor, assessors, a collector, supervisors of roads, and a constable.

* The suburbs contain 39,789 inhabitants.

Rivers, Bridges, Canals, &c.] There are six considerable rivers, which, with their numerous branches, peninsulate the whole state, viz. The Delaware, Schuylkill, Susquehannah, Youghiogeny, Monongahela, and Allegany. The bay and river Delaware are navigable from the sea up to the great or lower falls at Trenton, 155 miles; and are accomodated with a light-house, on Cape Henlopen, and with buoys and piers for the direction and safety of ships. The distance of Philadelphia from the sea is about 60 miles across the land in a S. E. course, to New-Jersey coast; and 120 miles by the ship channel of the Delaware. So far it is navigable for a 74 gun ship. Sloops go 35 miles farther, to Trenton Falls. The river is navigable for boats that carry eight or nine tons, 100 miles further, and for Indian canoes, except several small falls or portages, 150 miles. At Easton, it receives the Lehigh from the west, which is navigable thirty miles. The tide sets up as high as Trenton Falls, and at Philadelphia rises generally about five or six feet. A north-east and east wind raises it higher.

Between Cape Henlopen and Cape May, is the entrance into the Delaware bay. The entrance into the river is twenty miles farther up, at Bombay Hook, where the river is four or five miles wide. From bombay Hook to Reedy Island is twenty miles. This island is the rendezvous of outward bound ships in autumn and spring, waiting for a favourable wind. The course from this to the sea is S. S. E. so that a north-west wind, which is the prevailing wind in these seasons, is fair for vessels to put out to sea. This river is generally frozen one or two months in the year at Philadelphia, so as to prevent navigation, but vessels may, at all times, make a secure harbour at Port Penn, at Reedy Island, where piers have been erected by the state. Vessels are generally from 12 to 24 hours in ascending this beautiful river to Philadelphia; and the navigation is safe, and in the milder seasons, especially in the summer, is indescribably pleasant.

From Chester to Philadelphia, 20 miles by water and 15 by land, the channel of the river is narrowed by islands of marsh, which are generally banked and turned into rich and valuable meadows.

Billingsport, twelve miles below Philadelphia, on the Jersey shore, was fortified in the late war for the defence of the channel. Opposite this fort, several large frames of timber, headed with iron spikes, called *che-vaux-de-frizes*, were sunk to prevent the British ships from passing. Since the peace, a curious machine has been employed to raise them.

The Schuylkill rises north-west of the Kittatinny mountain, through which it passes, into a fine champaign country, and runs from its source upwards of one hundred and twenty miles in a southeast direction, and passing through the limits of the city of Philadelphia falls into the Delaware, opposite Mud Island, 6 or 7 miles below the city. It will be navigable from above Reading, 85 or 90 miles to its mouth, when the canal begun at Norristown is completed. This will pass by the falls, and also form a communication with the Delaware above the city. There were four floating bridges thrown across it, made of logs fastened together, and lying upon the water, in the vicinity of Philadelphia. In place of one of these, terminating at the head of Market-street, has

been completed this year (1805) an elegant permanent bridge, at a great expense, which, while it greatly accommodates the city and country, promises reward to the patriotick and enterprizing undertakers.

The north-east branch of the Susquehannah river rises in lakes Otsego, and Otego, in the state of New-York, and runs in such a winding course as to cross the boundary line between New-York and Pennsylvania three times. It receives Tyoga river, one of its principal branches, in lat. 41° 57', three miles south of the boundary line. The Susquehannah branch is navigable for batteaux to its source, whence, to Mohawk river is but twenty miles. The Tyoga branch is navigable 50 miles, for batteaux; and its source is but a few miles from the Chenessee, or Gennessee, which empties into lake Ontario. From Tyoga point, it proceeds south-east to Wyoming, without any obstruction by falls, and then south-east, over Wyoming falls, till at Sunbury, in about lat. 41°, it meets the west branch of Susquehannah, which is navigable 90 miles from its mouth, and some of the branches of it are navigable 50 miles, and approach very near some of the boatable branches of the Allegany river. This noble river is passable to Middletown (below Harris's ferry) with boats, carrying several hundred bushels, and with rafts of boards, &c. from the state of New-York, as well as down the Tyoga and Juniata branches, several hundred miles, in their different windings, but it is attended with difficulty and danger, on account of the numerous falls below Middletown. About 15 miles above Harrisburg it receives the Juniata, from the north-west, proceeding from the Allegany mountains, and flowing through a mountainous, broken, yet cultivable country. This river is navigable, 120 miles from its mouth. A family now reside on the Hock-hocking, who went from Cooperstown in the state of New-York, down the north-east branch of the Susquehannah; then up the Juniata, then 30 miles by land to the navigable waters of the Conemagh, then into the Allegany and Ohio.

The Swetara, which falls into the Susquehannah from the north-east, is navigable fifteen miles. About half a mile from the mouth of this river, and a mile from Middletown, is a grist-mill which merits particular notice. It is a very large and handsome stone building, has four pair of stones, and is perhaps in every respect one of the most complete in the state. But the most remarkable circumstance relative to it, is the race, which is a canal from 20 to 30 feet wide, and carried with such a degree of boldness to a length of 476 rods or perches, through rocks and hills, and every obstacle in its course, as cannot fail to excite a very high idea of the enterprize and persevering industry of Mr. George Frey, the undertaker and owner.

It appears from actual surveys, that the whole distance of a navigation by water, from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh, would be 426 miles, in which there would be but one portage of 18 miles at Conemagh. The land distance is 320 miles. From Swetara to the Tulpehoken branch of Schuylkill, a canal and lock navigation is undertaken, and the works in forwardness by an incorporated company called the Delaware and Schuylkill company, whose capital is 400,000 dollars.

The same company have commenced a canal from Philadelphia to the Schuylkill at Norristown. Mr. Weston, in his report, Dec. 16, 1794, says, "This canal is intended to answer the double purpose of forming a capital link in the great chain of western navigation, from the Ohio and lake Erie to Philadelphia, as well as an abundant supply of wholesome water to all parts of the city. The canal will connect the navigation of the Schuylkill with the Delaware, and is carried on a level of 49 feet above the high water mark of the Delaware, for about 16 miles to Broad-street; and from thence is conducted into the Delaware above Callow-hill-street, through six locks, the distance being about one mile. The report of the deputy engineer states, that *one third of the work is finished, and that contracts are formed and forming for a vigorous prosecution during the present year; and the committee with confidence can assert, that a proper attention of the stockholders to the punctual payment of the monies when called for by the president and managers, will enable the board to draw a toll for part of the distance in the year 1796, and to complete the whole in three or four years. The stock of the company as already described, amounts to £150,000, which from the costs of that part of the canal already cut, will be sufficient for the completion of the work necessary for the transportation of produce."

From a report in 1796, it appears that the most difficult and expensive parts of this canal had been then completed. From the enterprizing and liberal spirit of Pennsylvanians, it is expected these important and useful works will soon be perfected. When this shall be done, a passage will be open to Philadelphia from the Juniata, the Tyoga, and the east and west branches of the Susquehannah, which water at least 15,000,000 of acres. From this junction, the general course of the Susquehannah is about southeast, until it falls into the head of Chesapeak Bay at Havre de Grace. It is above a mile wide at its mouth, and is navigable for sea vessels but about five miles, on account of its rapids. The banks of this river are very romantick, particularly where it passes through the mountains. This passage has every appearance of having been forced through by the pressure of the water, or having been burst open by some convulsion in nature.

The several branches of the Youghiogeny river rise on the west side of the Allegany mountains. After running a short distance, they unite and form a large beautiful river, which, in passing some of the most western ridges of the mountains, precipitates itself over a level ledge of rocks, lying nearly at right angles to the course of the river. These falls, called the Ohiopyle falls, are about twenty feet in perpendicular height, and the river is perhaps eighty yards wide. For a con-

* By a rough calculation, which is by no means exaggerated, I find we have blasted with powder and quarried, five millions four hundred and forty-five thousand cubick feet of rock, and have mounded up, between the towing path of the canal and the river, a bank with the stone and rubbish, from 20 to 25 feet high from its base in the river. We have made at our brick-yard last summer, about three hundred thousand bricks. At the lower end of the canal, in the vicinity of the city, through the distance of two miles and three quarters, there have been two hundred and fifty thousand cubick yards of earth and gravel and partly rocks, removed out of the bed of the canal, and ten culverts built and completed.

siderable distance below the falls, the water is very rapid, and boils and foams vehemently, occasioning a considerable mist to rise from it, even at noon day, and in fair weather. The river at this place runs to the southwest, but presently winds round to the northwest, and, continuing this course for thirty or forty miles, it loses its name by uniting with the Monongahela, which comes from the southward, and contains, perhaps, twice as much water. These united streams, shortly after their junction, mingle with the waters of the Allegany at Pittsburg, and together form the grand river Ohio.

The Monongahela* has been already particularly described, and some observations made on the navigation of the Allegany. In addition, it may be observed, that at the junction of French Creek (which comes from the northwest) with the Allegany, are the remains of a British fortification; and about a mile above is fort Franklin, built in 1787. The Pennsylvania north line, crosses French Creek about three miles above Le Bœuf, where there was formerly a fort, built by a French captain of that name. A town is established here on a small creek, which communicates with French Creek. It has 5 or 6 houses, and a block-house, lately garrisoned by troops of the United States. French Creek passes within two miles of this town. Canoes and small boats pass from this place to Pittsburg, in the driest seasons. When the waters are high, they go in 48 hours. The town is about 30 feet higher than the level of the creek. The lands on French Creek are very rich, and mostly cleared, which is an evidence that its former Indian inhabitants were numerous. Fourteen miles from the mouth of this creek is a gentle rapid; thence to its mouth it is slow, deep and smooth.

There is said to be a practical communication between the southern branch of the Tyoga and a branch of the Allegany, the head waters of which are but a short distance from each other. The Senaca Indians say they can walk four times in a day, from the boatable waters of the Allegany, to those of the Tyoga, at the place now mentioned. And between the Susquehannah, just before it crosses into Pennsylvania the first time, and the Delaware, is a portage of only twelve miles. Rafts of timber, plank, boards and staves, with other articles upon them, can be brought down the Delaware from the counties of Montgomery and Otsego in New-York, 200 miles above the city, by the course of the river. Some money was expended by the government and landholders in improving the navigation up towards the source, before the revolution; and there has been a survey since made, for the purpose of proceeding in the improvement of this and the other principal rivers of Pennsylvania, and for making communications by canals in the improved part, and by roads in the unimproved parts of the state. Great progress has already been made in these improvements, and the exertions for their completion are still continued. The Conewaga canal is completed, by which the inconveniences of the falls of that name in the Susquehannah, are avoided. The Pennsylvanians are much inclined to such enterprizes, having found great benefit from

* The Monongahela, which commonly is barely sufficient to turn two grist-mills, after great rains, some times suddenly rises nearly 40 feet.

them. On the completion of the present plans, the state will be very conveniently intersected by roads, which will greatly facilitate the settlement of its new lands. A slight view of the map of Pennsylvania will show how finely this state is watered by the Deleware and its branches, the Schuylkill, the Juniata, Susquehannah and its branches, the Ohio, Allegany, Youghiogeny, and Monongahela. The Potomak and lake Erie also afford prospects of considerable benefit from their navigation. Nature has done much for Pennsylvania in regard to inland water carriage, which is strikingly exemplified, by this fact, that although Philadelphia and lake Erie are distant from each other above 300 miles, there is no doubt but that the rivers of the state may be so improved, as to reduce the land carriage between them nine tenths. In the same way the navigation to Pittsburg, after due improvement, may be used instead of land carriage for the whole distance except 23 miles. By these routes it is clear, that a large proportion of the foreign articles used on the western waters must be transported, and their furs, skins, ginseng, hemp, flax, pot-ash, and other valuable commodities brought to Philadelphia. The hemp and oak timber for the Russian navy is transported by inland navigation 1,200 miles, and yet hemp is shipped for that kingdom on lower terms than from any other part of the known world. Russia, long since the settlement of Pennsylvania by civilized and enlightened people, was in a state of absolute barbarism, and destitute of these improvements. Much therefore is to be expected from the continued exertions of the prudent, industrious and sensible inhabitants of Pennsylvania, in the course of the present century.

One remark must not be omitted here, and that is, that in all the back country waters of this state, even in those high up in the mountains, marine petrifactions are found in great abundance.

Swamps.] The only swamps worth noticing, are the Great Swamp, between Northampton and Luzerne counties, and Buffaloe Swamp, near the head waters of the west branch of the Susquehannah. These swamps, on examination are found to be bodies of farm land, thickly covered with beach and sugar maple.

Mountains, Face of the Country, Soil and Natural Advantages. A considerable proportion of this state may be called mountainous; particularly the counties of Bedford, Huntingdon, Cumberland, part of Franklin, Dauphin, and part of Bucks and Northampton, through which pass, under various names, the numerous ridges and spurs, which collectively form what we choose to call, for the sake of clearness, *The Great Range of Allegany Mountains.* The principal ridges in this range, in Pennsylvania, are the Kittatinny, or Blue Mountains, which pass north of Nazareth in Northampton county, and pursue a southwest course, across the Lehigh, through Dauphin county, just above Harrisburg, thence on the west side of the Susquehannah, through Cumberland and Franklin counties. Back of these, and nearly parallel with them, are Peters, Tuscarora, and Nescopek mountains, on the east of the Susquehannah; and on the west, Sharemon's hills, Sideling hills, Ragged, Great Warriors, Evits and Will's mountains; then the great Allegany ridge, which being the largest gives its name to the whole range; west of this are the Chesnut ridges. Be-

tween the Juniata and the west branch of the Susquehannah are Jacks, Tussys, Nittiny and Bald Eagle mountains. The vales between these mountains are generally of a rich, black soil, suited to the various kinds of grains and grass. Some of the mountains will admit of cultivation almost to their tops. The other parts of the state are generally level, or agreeably variegated with hills and vallies.

The soil of Pennsylvania is of various kinds; in some parts it is barren; a great proportion of the state is good land, and no inconsiderable part is very good. Perhaps the proportion of first rate land is not greater in any of the other states. The richest part of the state, that is settled, is Lancaster county, and the valley through Cumberland, York and Franklin. The richest, that is unsettled, is between Allegany river and Lake Erie, in the north-west corner of the state, and in the country on the heads of the eastern branches of the Allegany.

In general, the soil is more fit for grain than for grass. The turf of unimproved grounds is not equal to that in the northern states. But the borders of streams and rivulets are good meadow grounds; these abound throughout the state. They have also a great number of falls, suitable for every kind of mill-works and labour-saving machines; a great advantage to a country with plenty of raw materials for manufactures, but under a comparative scarcity of hands.

Pennsylvania includes the greater part of the kinds of trees, shrubs, and plants, that grow within the United States, as it has a central situation, and considerable extent, with hills and vallies. Oaks, of several species, form the bulk of the woods. Hickory and walnut make a greater proportion than in the northern states. Sassafras, mulberry, and tulip or poplar trees, which grow larger than the oak, are frequent, and grow to perfection. The *magnolia glauca* is found in low grounds; and the *acuminata* grows very tall about the western mountains.

Grapes of several sorts are common: the late kind, when mellowed by frost, make, with the addition of sugar, good wine. The white pine *(pinus strobus)* and white cedar *(cedrus thyoides)* grow well in some parts. Red cedars, of tolerable size, are not rare on high grounds. Elms, and linds are not here so stately as farther north. The sugar maple is plenty in the western and northern parts of the state, and yields a considerable supply of sugar for the use of the inhabitants.

Iron ore is distributed in considerable quantities through the state; copper, lead, and alum appear in some places. Lime-stone quarries are found in many parts, and also several kinds of marble, as light, speckled, bluish, and river-coloured. They are used for chimney-pieces, tables, steps in buildings, and tomb-stones. Mill-stones, of a coarse grain, are hewn in Bucks county. In the middle and western country is abundance of coal. In the vicinity of Wyoming, on the Susquehannah, is a bed of the open burning kind, which gives very intense heat. On the head waters of Schuylkill and Lehigh are some considerable bodies. At the head of the western branch of Susquehannah is an extensive bed, which stretches over the country south-westwardly, so as to be found in the greatest plenty about Pittsburg.

Wild turkeys, which formerly abounded, are now scarcely ever seen in the old settlements ; but in the new, there are large flocks. Partridges are yet numerous, though the late hard winters have destroyed many. Pheasants are become dear. Grouse are found only in some districts. Great numbers of pigeons come from the north in the cold seasons. In spring and autumn, several kinds of ducks, and some wild geese are found on the rivers. Pennsylvania has a great number of singing birds ; as many migrate to it from north and south, in certain seasons.

Trouts are common in the rivulets ; in length, seldom above a foot. In the eastern rivers, the principal fish are rock, shad and herring, which, in the spring, come up from the sea in great shoals. These are not found in the western waters, which are said to have their own valuable kinds, especially a species of catfish, weighing from 50 to 100 pounds. Yellow perch and pike are also in them much larger and more numerous.

Useful quadrupeds, in the new districts, are, deer, in great numbers, beavers, otters, racoons and martins. Buffaloes rarely cross the Ohio. Elks but seldom advance from the north. Panthers, wild-cats, bears, foxes and wolves are not rare at a distance back : the last do most mischief, especially in the winter ; but the fur of all is valuable. In the thick settlements, rabbits and squirrels are frequent ; also minks and musk-rats in marshes ; opossums and ground hogs are rare.

The south side of Pennsylvania is the best settled land throughout, owing entirely to the circumstance of the western road having been run by the armies, prior to 1762, through the towns of Lancaster Carlisle, and Bedford, and thence to Pittsburg. For the purpose of turning the tide of settlers from this old channel into the unsettled parts of the state, the government and landed interest of Pennsylvania have been and are still busy in cutting convenient roads. During the summer of 1788 they laid out a road north, from the former roads beyond Bethlehem, to the north portage between Delaware and Susquehannah ; and thence north, eighty degrees west, to the mouth of the Tyoga, the first seventy miles, and the last above sixty. It is now in contemplation to cut a road from Sunbury, at the forks of the east and west branches of Susquehannah, west, one hundred and fifty miles, to the mouth of Toby's creek, which empties into the Allegany river from the east. A road is also cut from the mouth of the Tyoga, southward, to the mouth of Loyal, which empties into the west branch of Susquehannah. Another road is cut from Huntingdon town, on Frankstown branch of the Juniata, westward thirty miles, to Conemagh, a navigable branch of the Allegany.

The populous parts of the state, can, at present, bear the expense of turnpike roads. One from Philadelphia to Lancaster has lately been completed, which shortens the distance between these places 5 miles ; and others are in contemplation.

The sales of publick lands have, unfortunately, been too quick and irregular. Confusion in grants, and enormous land-jobbing have been the consequence. The legislature has lately prohibited further

sales, until it is known what land remains. Happily, sixty thousand acres have been reserved for publick schools.

Agriculture, Manufactures, and Commerce.] Wheat is the principal grain of very general cultivation. The Hessian fly has, in this state, as well as much farther northeast and south, caused great damage to it for several years past. Indian corn is the next in value, and attains full maturity, except in the mountainous tracts, where the early September frosts are more common and severe. Buck-wheat is frequently somewhat injured by these and by the preceding heats in August; but yields, nevertheless, a considerable crop throughout the country. Rye has, of late years, been more cultivated, and a great proportion of it is in the western parts distilled into whiskey. Crops of barley will increase with the progressive use of beer. Much good beer is now made in Philadelphia, which will tend to produce health and temperance. Oats are raised sufficient for demand. Spelts are cultivated by the Germans, chiefly as food for horses. Potatoes are plenty. Turnips, cabbage, parsnips, carrots, and the small oval pea, are common; the Bermudian potatoe thrives in a loose mould.

The culture of meadows is a considerable object; the marshes on rivers are banked, drained, tussocked, ploughed and harrowed; then sown with Timothy and clover; the last grass is also, in many places, a rotation crop, on suitable upland. Trials of lucerne, saintfoin, and such artificial grasses, are yet rare. The summer is long enough for two mowings, and even three in rich ground; but in dry seasons, the last yields little. On farms that have springs or streams, dairies are built over them so as to place the milk-vessels in the water; without such convenience, the heat is prejudicial. Unimproved woodlands are suitable for the rearing of cattle. Grazing is most profitable on extensive low lands.

Horses are raised beyond the proper use; for oxen might be substituted more generally; and the former are liable, as in other parts, to the fatal distempers of botts and swellings in the throat. The best for teams are bred in Lancaster county; and elegant saddle and carriage horses have more or less of the blood of stallions imported from England.

The number of sheep is already considerable in the improved country, and increases. Hogs exceed home consumption: the woods of oak and beech afford a great part of their food. Mules and asses are yet very rare. Poultry abounds: turkies are in this (and generally through the states) very cheap comparatively to the prices in Europe. Flax has a portion of ground on most farms. The culture of hemp is increasing in the fertile inland counties. Hop-yards are yet inconsiderable. Bees receive pretty good attention.

In the old settlements, all kinds of north European fruits are common; though choice of varieties and attentive cultivation are rare. Late frosts in the spring often cause great damage, but the warm autumn ripens the latest sorts. These are also better than the early kinds, which are liable to flatness and specks, especially when the season is hot and wet. Caterpillars and worms, likewise, damage the orchards. Peach-trees were, 40 years ago, large and lasting; but have gradually depreciated, and, of late, decay very soon. Plums

are infested by a fly, whose stings make them shrivel and fall unripe. In favourable seasons, cherries, apples and cider abound. Recent attempts at vineyards, within eleven miles of Philadelphia are promising: espaliers of European grapes in gardens have long ago been introduced. The Italian mulberry-tree thrives well: but, as yet, silk worms are merely a curiosity in this state.

Improved farms and roomy lots in the country towns have gardens, in which common vegetables, small fruits, and some flowers are cultivated. Ornamental planting and gardening is yet admired by few, but progressive. The general style of architecture in this state is neat and solid. Stone buildings are most common in the old settlements; log and frame-houses in the new; the latter are naturally of the rough kind, usual in infant improvements. Towns have a considerable proportion of brick houses; in Philadelphia they make four fifths. Shingles cover the roofs; those of white cedar are preferred when they can be obtained. White-oak, chesnut and cedar make the best wood fences. Stones are not often employed in fencing, even where they abound, and where wood is valuable.

Necessary tradesmen and mechanicks, viz. shoe-makers, tailors, weavers, carpenters, joiners, masons, coopers, smiths, cartwrights, tanners and saddlers are settled on small farms or lots throughout the improved country; several are also found together in villages; but this mode is more customary in the thickly peopled parts, which cannot support many of a sort. Manufacturers, for whom there is less comparative demand, dwell chiefly in the towns, as cabinet-makers, whitesmiths, tinners, potters, hatters, diers, rope-makers, nailors, silversmiths, brewers, distillers, &c. though many of these trades-people are scattered through the country.

In the midland counties, many valuable manufactures have resulted from a flourishing agriculture, and immediately from their birth, have promoted the prosperity of the cultivators. Lancaster, which is one of the largest inland towns in the United States, is 60 miles from a sea-port, and ten from any practised boat-navigation. The number of families was, in 1786, about 700, of whom 234 were manufacturers; among these were 14 hatters, 17 saddlers, 25 weavers of woollen, linen and cotton cloth, 3 brewers, 3 coppersmiths, 2 printers, in English and German, 6 clock and watch makers, 5 silversmiths. There were also, in 1786, within 39 miles of the town, 17 furnaces, forges, rolling and slitting mills; and within ten miles of it, 18 grain-mills, 16 saw-mills, one fulling-mill, 4 oil-mills, 5 hemp-mills, 2 boring and grinding-mills for gun-barrels, and 8 tanneries. Lancaster is 48 miles from Wilmington in Delaware state; a large proportion of the produce of the country is carried to Newport, near Wilmington, and thence conveyed to Philadelphia by water.

A new article is likely to be added to the list of productions in this state, which is a wholesome and well tasted *maple sugar*,* made from the sap of the maple tree, which abounds in this state.

* The manufacture of maple sugar has been considered as an important discovery of the *Whites*; but Brickell, in his history of North-Carolina, published about the year 1735, gives a description of the *Indian* method of making the maple sugar.

The product of domestick female industry is considerable. The wives and daughters of even opulent farmers knit and spin. In the towns, some ladies do the same. Woollen stockings are made sufficient for use: a large quantity of excellent quality, are wove by the Germans, especially in Germantown. Hemp is also used, in several places, for coarse wearing apparel, bags, seins and nets, &c. A great quantity is manufactured into cordage, cables and ropes; but of these, a large portion is imported.

Iron-works are of long standing, and their products increase in quantity, and improve in quality. The furnaces are 16, and the forges 37. The slitting and rolling-mills are said to cut and roll 1500 tons per annum. On the west side of the Allegany mountains are 11 forges, which by estimation make annually about 400 tons of iron. There are about as many furnaces; some of these have failed for want of ore. Among the fabricated articles are great numbers of stoves, both open and close, the use of which constantly increases; tongs; shovels, andirons; pots, kettles, ovens, pans, ladles; plough-irons, spades, hoes, sheet-iron, hoops; iron and steel work for pleasure and working carriages; nails, bolts, spikes; various pieces for ships, mills and buildings; cannon, balls, and some musquets; scythes, sickles, axes, drawing-knives, some saws and planes, with other tools.

Manufactures of leather, skins and fur, are very extensive and good. Shoes and boots, saddles and bridles, housings, holsters, saddle-bags, portmanteaus, whips, harness and leather materials for carriages, are made, not only for home-use, but for exportation. Deerskin breeches, drawers, and men's gloves, answer full demand. Trunks covered with seal, deer, and other skins; with slings, belts, cartouch-boxes and scabbards, are, of late, considerable articles. Hatting is a business long established, though at present under some difficulty, from scarcity of the fine northern fur; 300 hatters distributed over the state, make annually above 54,000* fur, and 161,000 wool hats. Muffs, tippets, linings, &c. are of increasing demand

Near Canonsburg a cotton manufactory on an improved and extensive plan, has lately been established, by Mr. Peter Eltonhead, consisting of carding machines, mules which will draw from 100 to 144 threads of the finest kind, water spinning frames &c.

The most respectable trades employed on materials of wood, are cabinet-making, house-carpentry, coach-making, and ship-building. Tables, chairs, sofas, bureaus, and all sorts of household furniture, are made to any demand, neat and elegant; walnut, maple, and wild cherry-wood are the best native materials: mahogany is imported, and generally used by the wealthier people, especially in towns. Commodious and very elegant chariots, phaetons, chaises and sulkeys, are constructed for domestick and foreign use; particularly in Philadelphia, and the adjacent boroughs. The inward carpentry-work, on private and publick buildings, is, in general, well finished, and superior to the plan itself. The port of Philadelphia is among the first in the world for naval architecture. Masts, spars, timber, and plank, from all the country up and down the Delaware, are constantly for

* Some presume to estimate the number at upwards of 150,000.

sale in its market. The mulberry of the Chesapeak, and the live oak and red cedar of the Carolinas and Georgia, are so abundant, that a large proportion of the vessels are built of them. These are of a superior quality, and come cheaper than the best oak ships in European ports. A live oak and cedar ship of 200 tons, carpenter's measurement, before the late European war raised the price of shipping, could be fitted to take in a cargo for less than 50 Spanish dollars per ton. The return of new vessels built in Philadelphia during 1793, was 8,145 tons. About 20 years ago the annual average was only 2,300. The form of the vessels is also generally admired.

Papers, of most kinds, form a beneficial branch. The mills are above 50, and their annual product is computed at 25,000 dollars. Writing and printing paper, of various qualities, except the largest and most costly, sheathing and wrapping paper, pasteboards, cards, and some paper hangings, are fabricated. Gunpowder is become a great article; 25 mills have been erected since the year 1770.

Manufactories in stone, clay, and fossils, are bricks, and the above-mentioned pieces in marble, both sufficient for demand; common earthern ware; grind-stones; mill-stones of an inferior sort. French burrs must be imported for good grain-mills. Glass-works are only in contemplation. Pot and pearl-ashes make a good progress. Our limits permit only a short account of the trades employed in foreign materials. Tin wares are well executed for various domestick utensils, canteens, &c. Copper is manufactured into utensils for distillers, brewers, sugar refiners, and other manufacturers, some domestick uses, articles in ships, &c. Brass is wrought for the furniture of houses and carriages, cabin stoves, technical instruments, &c. Lead is worked into ball and shot, sheets, and door and window-weights, &c. Pewter suits for distillers' worms, plates, basons, &c. Silver plate, in spoons and tea-table articles, is very common, also buckles and other small articles. Gold and ornamental toys are of small account. Watches are mostly imported; those fabricated here, are constructed in part from foreign materials. Much cotton is worked up in families: the Philadelphia cotton factory was burnt in 1792; but new ones are designed. Linens imported are now printed, and in an increasing degree. Sugar refineries, and distilleries of molasses, and various preparations of tobacco, employ many hands.

The manufactures of Pennsylvania have greatly increased within a few years, as well by master workmen and journeymen from abroad, as by the skill and industry of the natives. Some persons have begun to press oil from hickory-nuts. The Messrs. Marshalls of Philadelphia, have commenced the making of Glauber's salt, sal ammoniac, and volatile salts; they already supply the whole union with the first article, and export a part of the others. A mill of Rumsay's (the improvement of Barker's) near this city, grinds, by water, flour, chocolate, snuff, hair-powder, and mustard; shells chocolate nuts; presses and cuts tobacco for chewing and smoaking; and bolts meal. The water-works near the falls of Trenton, which grind grain, roll and slit iron, and pound plaster of Paris, exhibit great mechanism. Card manufactories are lately set up. The hand machines for carding and spinning cotton have been introduced and improved. Sir Richard

Arkwright's famous water-mill for spinning cotton yarn has been obtained; also the machinery to sliver, rove and spin flax and hemp into thread, fit for linen of 30 cuts to the pound; which will also serve for the roving and spinning combed wool into worsted yarn. Screws for paper-mills are now cut from solid cast iron. Lanterns for light-houses are made by Mr. Wheeler of Philadelphia; who also executes work for sugar-mills in the West Indies: during the war he made cannon from wrought iron.

The commerce of Pennsylvania with the eastern and southern states is, in great part, an exchange of staple commodities. Wheat-flour and bar-iron are exported to New-England for whale-oil and bone, spermaceti, seal-skins, mackerel, codfish and salmon, Rhode-Island and Connecticut cheese; to South-Carolina and Georgia for live oak, cedar, cotton, rice and indigo; to North-Carolina for tar, pitch, turpentine and lumber. Much of the trade with the southern states arises from the superiority of Pennsylvania in manufactures and commerce. Great quantities of deer-skins, with those of otters, racoons, foxes, musk-rats and beavers are imported from the back country. Virginia sends a great deal of wheat, and unmanufactured tobacco. In return, she receives many articles of clothing, furniture, farming utensils, equipage; some East-India and European goods; and even West-India produce; of all these, more or less, according to the local improvement and situation. Hats, saddlery, shoes, windsor chairs, carriages, hewn stones, iron castings for domestick use, wheel tire, spades, hoes, axes, paper, books, tin-ware, and brushes, constitute a great proportion of the exports to the southward.

Numerous droves of lean cattle come from the western parts of these states, where they have a wide range, but want meadow. Virginia sends of late a considerable deal of coal, some lead, and peach brandy. This liquor also comes from Maryland; but from both in quantity very small, considering its value, and the facility of raising the fruit. The eastern shore of Maryland sends to Philadelphia considerable quantities of wheat and Indian corn: from the western comes the kitefoot tobacco. This state has also some trade with the south of Pennsylvania, by the way of Chesapeak bay: some parts of it receive the same commodities as Virginia, especially pleasure carriages.

The trade with New York depends chiefly on the fluctuation of the market: American and foreign goods, of the same kinds, are carried between the two capital cities, as their prices fall and rise. Albany peas and craw-fish are, however, articles in regular demand from New-York. Great part of New-Jersey and Delaware states have, as neighbours, much intercourse with Pennsylvania. The first supports in a great measure the market of Philadelphia, furnishes rye meal, much Indian corn and lumber, and some iron bloomery: the other sends great quantities of excellent flour from the mills of Brandywine, lumber from the district on the bay, and fat cattle from the pastures adjoining Delaware. Many of these, and those fattened in the vicinity of Philadelphia, are brought from the south: and also from the countries on the North and Connecticut rivers, as far as Vermont and Massachusetts.

The commerce of Pennsylvania, in the west, is by the Ohio with the Spanish, and by the lakes with the British dominions; and both ways with the Indian tribes. This trade will probably be considerable, since commercial stipulations are formed with those powers, and peace is concluded with the Indians. At present nearly the whole foreign commerce is carried on by the port of Philadelphia. Its distance from the sea, and its closing by ice in the winter, are disadvantages; but the first is lessened by improved pilotage; the other by the construction of the piers below, and by the occasional thaws which permit vessels to clear their way during the winter. In common seasons the navigation is obstructed six weeks: a shorter period is as probable as a longer; though in the late hard winters, loads of wood have passed the river, near the city, in the first days of March.

Philadelphia is, in a commercial view, the capital of all the country around Delaware. It is also by its resources, by the peculiar improvements of Pennsylvania, and by its central situation, an emporium of the United States. Its market is, therefore, at all times, stocked with American, European, and, of late, East-India products. This accounts for the great amount of exports from Philadelphia, which, in 1795, were nearly one fourth of the total exports of the United States. The value of the exports from this state in the year ending September 30, 1791, was 3,436,092 dollars, 58 cents; 1792, 3,820,662 dollars; 1793, 6,958,836 dollars; 1794, 6,643,092* dollars; 1795, 11,518,260 dollars; 1799, 12,431,967 dollars; 1804, 11,030,157.

The late war occasioned some extraordinary articles in the exportation; coffee has been carried to Philadelphia, and from thence to Hamburg, as neutral ports. On the other hand, the quantity of flour, though great, will be much increased, if the Hessian fly ceases to ravage the wheat fields.

On importation it is to be remarked, that it is very great, both for the consumption of Pennsylvania, and of the districts supplied from Philadelphia; that common and fine imported linens and woollens are used to a great amount, notwithstanding the quantity of home-made; that much Swedish iron and Russian hemp is imported; and that English hard-ware is in great demand. The tonnage of this state amounted, in 1796, to 98,237 tons; in 1799, to 93,824 tons.

Population and Character.] The population of this state is mentioned in the table. It is, according to the census of 1800, more than 13 for every square mile.

The inhabitants are principally the descendants of English, Irish and Germans, with some Scotch, Welsh, Swedes, and a few Dutch. There are also many of the Irish and Germans, who emigrated when young or middle aged. The Friends and Episcopalians are chiefly

* The total value of exports from all the United States the year ending Sept. 30, 1795, was 47,989,472 dolls. 44 cents; of which the exports from Pennsylvania were 11,518,260 dollars. In 1799, the total value of exports from the United States was, 78,665,522 dolls.; of which the exports from Pennsylvania amounted only to 12,431,967 dolls. which is not a sixth part of the whole. In 1801, the total value of exports from the United States, was 93,020,513 dolls. of which the exports from Pennsylvania amounted to 17,438,193 dollars.

of the English extraction, and compose about one third of the inhabitants. They live principally in the city of Philadelphia, and in the counties of Chester, Philadelphia, Bucks and Montgomery. The Irish, and descendants of Irish, are chiefly settled in the western and frontier counties; a large proportion of them are Presbyterians from the north of Ireland. There are likewise many Roman Catholicks from this nation.

The Germans compose about one quarter of the inhabitants of Pennsylvania. They are most numerous in the north part of the city of Philadelphia, and in the counties of Philadelphia, Montgomery, Bucks, Dauphin, Lancaster, York and Northampton; chiefly in the four last; but are spreading in other parts. They consist of Lutherans, (who are the most numerous sect) Calvinist or reformed church, Moravians, Catholicks, Mennonists, Dutch Baptists, (corruptly called Tunkers and Dunkers, by way of reproach) and Zwingfelters, who are a species of Quakers. These are all distinguished for their temperance, industry and economy.

The Germans have usually about a fourth of the members in the assembly; and some of them have arisen to the first honours in the state, and now fill a number of the higher offices.

Pennsylvania is much obliged to the Germans for improvements in agriculture; but their imperfect knowledge of the English language makes them deficient in literature and politicks. They would derive advantage by studying the many excellent modern authors in their own language with whom they are now unacquainted.

The Baptists (except the Mennonist and Dutch Baptists) are chiefly the descendants of emigrants from Wales, and are not numerous.

The original Swedes came in the year 1638, as a colony, under the government and protection of Sweden. Their possessions extended on the western shore of Delaware, from the capes up to the falls of Trenton, 30 miles beyond the site of Philadelphia, and inland towards Susquehannah. They had a regular civil and military establishment, which (as appears from the original Swedish ordinances) was founded on wise and good principles. It was earnestly enjoined, to make fair purchases from the Indians, as the just owners of the land, and to treat them with all manner of kindness; to support religion and good manners: to explore and cultivate valuable materials for agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. A few bad characters came out with the first emigrants; but, by a subsequent edict, persons of that description were strictly restrained. The small colony were in a thriving state, until the dispute with the Dutch, who were already established in New-York, and pretended a prior claim to the Delaware. Unsupported by a distant mother country, then involved in war with five principal powers of Europe, it was conquered in the year 1654, and afterwards became, with the other Dutch possessions in North-America, part of the British dominions. Sweden has hitherto furnished the descendants of the colony with missionaries. Their language is now nearly extinct. Very few Swedish emigrants have come since the first colony. This people have uniformly had the character of probity, mildness, and hospitality; but have been careless of their lands and interest.

More than one half of all the European and other emigrants to the United States enter the Delaware. No difficulty lies in the way of any person, who desires to become a free and equal citizen. On the day of his landing, he may buy a farm, a house, merchandize, or raw materials; he may open a work-shop, a counting-house, an office, or any other place of lawful business, and pursue his occupation without any hindrance, or the payment of any sum of money to the publick. The right of electing and being elected, is granted after the expiration of two years.

A privilege, almost peculiar to this state. has been granted to foreigners by the legislature—that of buying and holding lands and houses within this commonwealth, without relinquishing their allegiance to the country in which they were born. They can sell or bequeath lands, receive the rents, and, in short, have every territorial and pecuniary right, that a natural born Pennsylvanian has; but no civil rights. As they profess to owe allegiance to a foreign prince or government, and reside in a foreign country, where they of course have civil rights, they cannot claim them, nor ought they to desire them here; since no man can serve two masters. If they choose, at any time after purchase, to come out to this country, and make themselves citizens; or if they choose to give their estate to a child, or other person, who will do so, either of them may become citizens to all intents and purposes.

The character of the Pennsylvanians is naturally diversified by difference of extraction, various degrees of education, and of opulence. Emigrants, when collected together in neighbourhoods, retain much of the manners of their native countries; but in other cases, they by degrees assimilate to the manners of the state. The enterprizing part of the character leads frequently to over-trading, and produces ruinous consequences, which, however, are at present less frequent than formerly.

Religion.] In Pennsylvania are the following denominations of christians, with the number of their respective congregations, taken from the minutes of the proceedings of each society, viz. Presbyterians 86 congregations; German Calvinists 84; German Lutherans 84; Friends or Quakers 54; Episcopalians 26; Baptists 15; Roman Catholicks 11; Scotch Presbyterians eight; Moravians eight; Free Quakers one; Universalists one; Covenanters one; Methodists several, besides a Jewish Synagogue: In all about 400 religious societies. Religious liberty was formerly on a more respectable establishment in Pennsylvania than in the other parts of America. However, even here it was imperfect until the late revolution; for Roman Catholicks and Jews were excluded from a share in the government. The latter continued under this disadvantage, until the new constitution gave them, and all people of whatsoever nation or religion, unlimited liberty of conscience, with capacity for all civil rights and privileges.

Military Strength.] In this state are 126 regiments of infantry; to each regiment is attached two flanking companies, either of grenadiers, light-infantry, or rifle-men: The whole amounting to 93,221 men.

The following arrangement is agreeable to the militia law, passed in April, 1799.

Infantry in battalion,	66,116
Flank companies,	18,648
Artillery and Cavalry,	8,467
Total,	93,221 men.

Literary, Humane, and other useful Societies.] These are more numerous and flourishing in Pennsylvania, than in any other state. The names of these improving institutions, the times when they were established, and a summary of the benevolent designs they were intended to accomplish, will be mentioned in their order.

1. The American Philosophical Society, held at Philadelphia, for promoting useful knowledge. This society was formed January 2, 1769, by the union of two other literary societies that had subsisted for some time in Philadelphia; and were created one body corporate and politick, with such powers, privileges and immunities, as are necessary for answering the valuable purposes which the society had originally in view, by a charter granted by the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, on the 15th of March 1780. This society has already published five very valuable volumes of their transactions.

In 1771, this society consisted of nearly 300 members; and upwards of 120 have since been added; a large proportion of whom are foreigners of the first distinction in Europe. Formerly, membership was lavished very profusely; but at present more discrimination is observed.

Their charter allows them to hold lands, gifts, &c. to the amount of the clear yearly value of 10,000 bushels of wheat. The number of members is not limited.

2. The society for promoting political inquiries, consisting of 50 members, instituted in February, 1787. This society has not met since Dr. Franklin's decease.

3. The college of Physicians, instituted in 1787, for the promotion of medical, anatomical, and chymical knowledge, incorporated by act of assembly, March, 1789.

4. The Pennsylvania Hospital, a humane institution, which was first meditated in 1750, and carried into effect by means of a liberal subscription of about £3,000, and by the assistance of the assembly, who, in 1751, granted as much more for the purpose. The present building was begun in 1754, and finished in 1756. This hospital is under the direction of 12 managers, chosen annually, and is visited every year by a committee of the assembly. The accounts of the managers are submitted to the inspection of the legislature. Six physicians attend *gratis*, and generally prescribe twice or three times in a week, in their turns. This hospital is the general receptacle of lunaticks and madmen, and of those affected with other disorders, and unable to support themselves. Here they are humanely treated and well provided for.

In the first 37 years after the foundation of this hospital, 8,608 patients were admitted; 5,435 of whom were cured, 925 relieved, 411 removed at the request of friends, or sent to the house of em-

ployment, 119 incurable, 525 eloped and discharged for irregular behaviour, 1,140 died. The productive stock of the institution in 1793 was 45,506 dolls. 66 cents. It had besides unproductive property to a considerable amount; a medical library, and a handsome collection of elegant and curious anatomical figures in wax-work, part of which were presented by Dr. Fothergill of London, and others were purchased of the heir of the ingenious Dr. Chevot of Philadelphia. In 1793, the legislature granted to this hospital 26,666 dolls. 66 cents, to enable the managers to enlarge the original plan of the institution, which has since been effected, and a lying-in and foundling hospital, are now annexed to this excellent and well regulated institution.

5. Philadelphia Dispensary, for the medical relief of the poor. This benevolent institution was established on the 12th of April, 1786, and is supported by annual subscriptions of 35 shilings each person. No less than 1,800 patients were admitted, within 16 months after the first opening of the dispensary. It is under the direction of 12 managers and six physicians, all of whom attend *gratis*. This institution exhibits an application of something like the mechanical powers, to the purposes of humanity. The greatest quantity of good is produced this way, with the least money. Five hundred pounds a year defray all the expenses of the institution. The poor are taken care of in their own houses, and provide every thing for themselves, except medicines, cordial drinks, &c.

6. The Pennsylvania Society for promoting the abolition of slavery, and the relief of Free Negroes unlawfully held in bondage. This society was begun in 1774, and enlarged on the 23d of April, 1787. The officers of this society consist of a president, two vice-presidents, two secretaries, a treasurer, four counsellors, an electing committee of twelve, and an acting committee of six members; all of whom, except the last, are to be chosen annually by ballot, on the first Monday in January. The society meet quarterly, and each member contributes 10 shillings annually, towards defraying its contingent expenses.

The legislature of this state have favoured the humane designs of this society, by "an act for the gradual abolition of slavery," passed on the first of March, 1780, wherein, among other things, it is ordained, that no person born within the state after the passing of the act, shall be considered as a servant for life; and all perpetual slavery is, by this act, forever abolished. The act provides that those who would, in case this act had not been made, have been born servants or slaves, shall be deemed such, till they shall attain to the age of 28 years; but they are to be treated, in all respects, as servants, bound by indenture, for a term of years.

Some years ago, the society extended its original plan to improving the condition of free negroes. A committee of 24 conducts this business, of which the four great parts are, to protect them from wrongs; to inspect their manners; to procure them employment; and to educate their children: for this last purpose particular schools are kept.

7. The society for alleviating the miseries of prisons, has effected an admirable reform in the gaol of Philadelphia. It is become a regular work-house, with some cells for the occasional correction of the

refractory. The clergy preach there at convenient times. The prisoners may procure a diminution of the term of their confinement by good behaviour. The gaol is under the constant care of 12 inspectors. The regulations are excellent, and the effects most happy. Males and females are kept in separate parts of the building. Vagrants, criminals convicted, and those not tried, have no intercourse. To excite industry, the person, when the time of confinement is expired, receives all he has earned, after paying the expenses of his commitment, board and other charges. The living of the men is 1s. 3d. per day, and 7d. for females; and there are few men who do not earn 2s. a day, some more than a dollar. Silence is enjoined on the labourers. Neither whips or irons are ever used, but the refractory are subdued by confinement in solitary cells. The convicts have a garden in which they raise a variety of fruits and vegetables.

For the half year ending Oct. 31, 1799, it appears, from the clerk's books, that the prisoners had, *aggregately*, to their credit, after paying all their expenses, the sum of £105 12 5, Pennsylvania currency.

In the house of employment and almshouse, from March 25, 1801, to March 23, 1802, inclusive, 1107 patients had been under the care of the medical department, of whom 794 were cured, 27 relieved, 7 eloped, 163 died, 120 remained. In the almshouse 527 persons were supported.

8. The society of United Brethren for propagating the gospel among the heathen, instituted in 1787, meet statedly at Bethlehem. An act incorporating this society, and investing it with all necessary powers and privileges for accomplishing its pious designs, was passed by the legislature of the state, on the 27th of February, 1788. They can hold lands, houses, &c. to the annual amount of £2,000.

These pious brethren, commonly called Moravians, began a mission among the Mahikan, Wampano, Delaware, Shawanoe, Nantikok and other Indians, about 50 years ago, and were so successful as to add more than 1000 souls to the Christian church by baptism. Six hundred of these have died in the Christian faith; about 300 live with the missionaries near Lake Erie, and the rest are either dead or apostates in the wilderness.

9. The Pennsylvania society for the encouragement of manufactures and useful arts, instituted in 1787, is open for the reception of every citizen in the United States, who will fulfil the engagement of a member of the same. This society is under the direction of a president, four vice-presidents, and 12 managers, besides subordinate officers. Each member, on his admission, pays ten shillings into the general fund; and the same sum annually, till he shall cease to be a member.

10. The Philadelphia society for the information and assistance of persons emigrating from foreign countries, instituted in 1794.

Besides these, there are two respectable insurance companies established in Philadelphia. There is also a humane society, for the recovering and restoring to life the bodies of drowned persons, instituted in 1770, under the direction of 13 managers.

Also, an agricultural society; a society for the relief of German, and another for the relief of Irish emigrants; a marine society, consisting of captains of vessels; a charitable society for the support of widows and families of Presbyterian clergymen; and St. George's and St. Andrew's charitable societies. Most of these societies are in the city of Philadelphia.

Colleges, Academies and Schools.] These are, the University of Pennsylvania, founded and endowed by the legislature during the late war, and lately united with the college of Philadelphia, by the agreement of the trustees on both sides, and with the sanction of the government. This college was founded by charter 40 years ago. The university is established in Philadelphia.

Dickinson College, at Carlisle, was founded in 1783, and has a principal, three professors, a philosophical apparatus, a library consisting of nearly 3,000 volumes, 10,666 dolls. 67 cts. in funded certificates, and 10,000 acres of land; the last, the donation of the state. The number of students belonging to this college is from 80 to 100. It was named after his excellency John Dickinson.

In 1787, a college was founded at Lancaster, and named Franklin College, after Dr. Franklin. This college is for the Germans; in which they may educate their youth in their own language, and in conformity to their own habits. The English language, however, is taught in it. Its endowments are nearly the same as those of Dickinson college. Its trustees consist of Lutherans, Presbyterians and Calvinists, German and English; of each an equal number. The principal is a Lutheran, and the vice-principal is a Calvinist.

At Washington, in the western part of the state, a college has been established lately, with a fund of several thousand acres of land.

The Episcopalians have an academy at Yorktown, in York county. There are also academies at Germantown, at Pittsburg, at Allen's-town, and other places; these are endowed by donations from the legislature, and by liberal contributions of individuals.

The schools for young men and women in Bethlehem and Nazareth, under the direction of the people called Moravians, are among the best establishments of the kind in America. Besides these, there are numerous private schools in different parts of the state; and, to promote the education of poor children, the legislature has appropriated a large tract of land for the establishment of free schools. A bill for establishing schools throughout the state, was passed February, 1796.

Chief Towns.] The city of Philadelphia, the metropolis of Pennsylvania, is situated in the county to which it gives name, on the western bank of the river Delaware, which is here a mile broad. It lies in lat. 39° 56′ 54″ N. and long. 75° 8′ 45″ W. from London; distant about 110 miles from the Atlantick Ocean, by the course of the bay and river, and about 55 or 60 in a S. E. direction. A 74 gun ship can come up to this city; sloops go 35 miles farther to Trenton; and boats that carry 8 or 9 tons can go 100 miles farther up the Delaware.

It was laid out by William Penn, the first proprietary and founder of the province, in the year 1683, and settled by a colony

from England, which arrived in that and the preceding years, and was increased by a regular influx of foreigners, to so great a degree, that in less than a century, and within the life time of the first person born within it of European parents, it was computed to contain 6,000 houses, and 40,000 inhabitants, in the city and suburbs. There was a widow lady living in the city in 1804, whose mother arrived from England when there were but three houses in Philadelphia.

The ground plot of the city is an oblong square, about one mile N. and S. and two E. and W. lying in the narrowest part of the isthmus between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, about 5 miles in a right line above their confluence. In the beginning of this settlement, it was expected that the fronts on both rivers would be first improved for the convenience of trade and navigation, and that the buildings would extend gradually in the rear of each, until they would meet and form one town, extending from E. to W. But it was soon found that the Delaware front was alone sufficient for quays and landing places. The buildings now occupy a space not exceeding 3 miles in length from N. to S. and in the most extended part do not reach a mile from the Delaware.

The city has been twice incorporated, and its limits restrained to the oblong, originally laid out by William Penn, without including the northern or southern suburbs. The city is intersected by a great number of streets crossing each other at right angles. Of these there were originally 9, which extended from the Delaware to the Schuylkill; these were crossed by 23, running N. and S. The E. and W. streets, except High-street, are named after the trees first found by the colony on their arrival in the country, viz. Vine, Sassafras, Mulberry, Chesnut, Walnut, Spruce, Pine and Cedar; which last is the southern boundary of the city. The streets running N. and S. receive their names from their numerical order, beginning at Delaware River; Front is *First*, then *Second*, and so on to *Thirteenth* street, whence the numerical order ceases from Delaware front, and begins at Schuylkill in the same order, as First, Second, &c. to Eighth street, between which and Thirteenth street, is Broad-street, so named from its being the widest in the city. The number of squares in the original plan was 184; but as several of the squares have lately been intersected by new streets, their number now amounts to 304; and several of these are again intersected by lanes and alleys. Broad-street is 113 feet wide; High-street 100; Mulberry 60; and the other streets in the original plan 50 feet wide. Most of the city is well paved with neat foot paths of brick, furnished with common sewers and gutters; so that the streets are, in general, kept very clean and neat. Besides the streets already mentioned, there are several others not laid down in the original plan, as Water, Dock, Cherry, Penn, Prune, &c. Water-street is only 30 feet wide, and extends from the Northern liberties across the Dock, to Pine-street, parallel to the course of the Delaware, and between it and Front-street. The space occupied by it was intended, in the original plan, to serve only as a cart way to accommodate the wharves and stores, so that the river should be open to the view from Front-street. It is now built with lofty houses (except a very few vacancies here

and there) throughout the whole front, and commodious wharves are extended into the river, at which the largest ships that use the port can lie in safety, to receive and discharge their cargoes; and are defended from the ice, in winter, by the piers, made of logs, extending into the river, sunk with stone, and filled with earth, so as to be equally firm with the main land. Dock-street was formerly a swamp, with a small stream running through the middle of it. It is from 90 to 100 feet wide, and winds north-westward in a serpentine track, through several streets. It is planted on each side with a row of Lombardy poplars, and promises to be one of the pleasantest streets in the city.

No less than 662 lamps of two branches each, disposed at convenient distances, in all parts of the city, are lighted every night, and are estimated to consume annually, nearly 9,000 gallons of oil. The houses in the city and suburbs, are generally of brick, three stories high, in a plain neat style, without much display of ornament. The general height of the ground on which the city stands, is nearly 40 feet above the Delaware; but some of the streets are considerably lower, particularly Water-street; several stores in which, have sometimes received much damage when the river happened to be raised by a high flood, and a strong S. E. wind. Here are upwards of 30 places for publick worship, for the various denominations of christians. Of these 5 are for Friends or Quakers, 7 for the Presbyterians and Seceders, 3 for Episcopalians, 3 for Roman Catholicks, 2 for German Lutherans, 2 for Methodists, 1 for German Calvinists, 1 for Swedish Lutherans, which is the oldest church in the city, 1 for the Moravians, 1 for Baptists, 1 for Africans, and a Jewish synagogue. The first Presbyterian church is finished with a degree of elegance that would do honour to any city in Europe. The roof is supported in front by 6 pillars, finished in the Corinthian order; but as it stands in an obscure place, on the south side of Market-street, is seen to disadvantage. The German Lutheran church, which was built not many years since, was unfortunately burnt in the winter of 1795. The new building is 108 feet by 48; and is one of the handsomest churches in the United States. Mr. D. Tanèberger, a member of the society of the United Brethren at Letiz, a man of extraordinary mechanical genius, completed and erected a large organ for this church, but it received much injury when the roof and inside of the building were consumed, before the pipes could be disengaged. Christ church stands on the W. side of Second-street, between High and Mulberry streets. It is an old Gothick structure, and is ornamented with a handsome steeple, and furnished with a chime of bells. The Episcopal churches are furnished each with an organ, as are the German, and two of the Roman Catholick churches. The African church is a large, neat building. It is supplied with a negro clergyman, who has lately been ordained by the bishop. They are of the Episcopalian order. The other publick buildings are a Presbyterian church in Arch-street, at the corner of Mulberry and Third-street; and another lately built in the Northern Liberties, associated with it; a State-house and offices, two city court-houses, a county court-house, a university, the philosophical society's hall, a publick library, an hospital, dispensary, an almshouse, a gaol, 3 incorporated banks, &

marine insurance companies, two dramatick theatres, a medical theatre, a laboratory, an amphitheatre, 3 brick market houses, and one which is to be erected in Front street, in the Northern Liberties, a fish market, a house of correction, and a powder magazine, which contains often upwards of 50,000 quarter casks of gunpowder.

Two steam engine houses have lately been erected for supplying the city with wholesome water from the Schuylkill. One of these is a handsome marble building, the base of which is square, and the superstructure circular. It stands in the centre of High and Broad-streets, exactly upon the point of intersection, and is surrounded by a large circular inclosure, which is platted with trees. This building commands a view of High-street in its whole extent from river to river, and is itself a handsome object, as seen from various parts of the city. A permanent bridge, over the Schuylkill, opposite Market-street, has lately been completed. It consists of three extensive arches, resting on stone piers, and is one of the finest as well as most expensive structures of the kind in the United States. It was finished by Mr. Palmer.

The state-house stands on the south side of Chesnut-street, between Fifth and Sixth-streets, and was erected about the year 1753; and, considering the infancy of the colony, the architecture is much admired. The state-house garden occupies a whole square; it is a small neat place, ornamented with several rows of trees and gravel walks, and inclosed by a high brick wall on three sides, and the state-house, &c. on the other. Pottersfield, formerly a publick burying ground, is now converted into a publick walk, and planted with rows of Lombardy poplars on each side. When the trees are grown, and the ground levelled, it will be one of the most pleasant promenades in the vicinity. In the N. E. corner of the yard, adjoining the left wing of the state-house, is the town hall or new court-house; south of which is the philosophical hall. Mr. Peal keeps his museum, by special permission of the legislature, in the body of the state-house. It is the largest collection of natural curiosities that is to be found in America. In it are 400 species of birds, some living animals, &c.

Opposite the philosophical hall is the Philadelphia library; these add much to the beauty and grandeur of the square. The Philadelphia library originated with Dr. Franklin, and was incorporated in 1742, since which time the collection of books has been greatly augmented. At present, it contains upwards of 12,000 volumes, besides a museum and a valuable philosophical apparatus. It is open every day in the week, except Sunday; and any person who has an inclination or taste for reading, may here indulge or improve either to great advantage. The library is furnished with tables and seats; and a stranger, without any introduction, may call for any book he wants, and sit down and peruse it as long as he pleases. Those who prefer their chambers to read in, may receive books out of the library, by leaving a deposite, as security for the return of them, and paying a moderate sum for the use of them. The proprietors amount to several hundreds, and each subscriber pays ten shillings annually, for defraying expenses and making new additions. To the library is annexed a rare and valuable collection of books, the bequest of James

Logan, Esq. to the publick. The building belonging to the Library Company is remarkably elegant, and has a fine appearance. In front of the building, in a niche over the door, is a handsome statue of Dr. Franklin, the donation of William Bingham, Esq. to the company. It is of white marble, was executed in Italy, and is said to have cost £500.

The publick gaol stands in the next square, south of the state-house yard. It is a hollow square, 100 feet in front, built of stone, three stories high. All the apartments are arched with stone, as a precaution against fire; and it is the largest, strongest, and neatest building of the kind in the United States. To the gaol is annexed a work-house, with yards to keep the sexes apart, and criminals from the debtors. There are also apartments lately added for the solitary confinement of criminals. The whole is securely inclosed by stone walls.

The market house in High-street, is perhaps exceeded by none in the world, in the abundance, neatness and variety of provisions, which are exposed for sale every Wednesday and Saturday. Butchers' meat and vegetables may be had any other day, except Sunday. It extends from Front to Fourth-street, and is supported by 300 pillars.

On the west side of Second-street, a little above Walnut-street, is the new bank of Pennsylvania, lately erected under the superintendance of Mr. Latrobe. It is a large and remarkably neat and elegant marble edifice of the Ionick order, built after the model of the ancient temple of Minerva in Greece. The eastern and western fronts are adorned with two lofty colonnades of solid marble. The new theatre in Chesnut-street, near the state-house, is large and convenient. It was finished in 1793.

Further west, is a spacious building, intended for the accommodation of the President of the United States, but since the removal of the seat of government, it has been purchased by the University of Pennsylvania. This seminary was formed by the union of two literary institutions, which had previously existed a considerable time in Philadelphia, one designated by the above name; the other, by that of the college, academy and charitable schools of Philadelphia. They now constitute a respectable seminary, incorporated in 1791. The philosophical apparatus, which was before very complete, has been lately increased to the value of several hundred pounds. The funds of the university produce annually a revenue of about £2,265. The aggregate number of students, in the several schools, is, on an average, about 510; and the number usually admitted to degrees in each year, about 25. The Friends' academy and Young Ladies' academy are also respectable and useful establishments. The chief literary and humane societies are the American philosophical society; the college of physicians; the society for promoting political inquiries; the Pennsylvania hospital; the Philadelphia dispensary; the Pennsylvania society for the abolition of slavery; the society for alleviating the miseries of prisons; the Pennsylvania society for the encouragement of manufactures and useful arts; the Philadelphia society for the information and assistance of immigrants, and two other societies of the same kind; one for the relief of German, and another

for the relief of Irish immigrants ; and a humane, an agricultural, marine and various other charitable societies. Here is a Grand Lodge of Free and Accepted Masons, and 8 subordinate lodges. Few cities in the world, of the same population and riches as Philadelphia, are better provided with useful institutions, both publick and private. There are also a sufficient number of academies for the instruction of both sexes. Almost every religious society has one or more schools under its immediate direction, where children belonging to the society are taught to read and write, and are furnished with books and stationary articles.

In the city and suburbs are 10 ropewalks which manufacture about 800 tons of hemp annually—13 breweries, which are said to consume 50,000 bushels of barley yearly—6 sugar houses—7 hair powder manufactories in and about town—2 rum distilleries, and 1 rectifying distillery—3 card manufactories. The other manufactories are, 15 for earthern ware—6 for chocolate—4 for mustard—3 for cut nails, and one for patent nails—1 for steel—1 for aqua fortis—1 for sal ammoniack and Glauber salts—1 for oil colours—11 for brushes—2 for buttons—one for morocco leather, and one for parchment ; besides gun makers, coppersmiths, type founders, ship builders, hatters, tin plate workers, coach makers, cabinet makers, and a variety of others. The publick mint, at which the national money is coined, is in this city.

The great number of paper mills in the state enable the printers to carry on their business more extensively than is done in any other place in America. There are 11 printing-offices in this city ; 5 of which publish each a daily gazette ; 2 others publish gazettes twice a week ; one of these is in the French language ; besides 4 weekly papers, one of which is in the German language. The other offices are employed in printing books, pamphlets, &c. The catalogue of books for sale in this city, contains upwards of 300 sets of Philadelphia editions, besides a greater variety of maps and charts than is to be found any where else in America.

The pleasure carriages within the city and liberties, according to enumeration, are as follow, viz. two wheeled carriages 553, light waggons 80, coaches 137, phaetons 22, chariots 35, and coachees 33 ; the whole amounting to 307 four wheeled carriages.

The roads are good and becoming better ; stage coaches perform the journey from this city to Lancaster in 11 hours, on the new turnpike road : The distance is 58 miles.

This city is governed by a mayor, recorder, 15 aldermen and 30 common council men ; according to its present charter, granted in the year 1789. The mayor, recorder, 8 aldermen, and 16 common council men make a quorum to transact business ; they have full power to constitute and ordain laws and ordinances for the governing of the city ; the mayor, recorder and aldermen are justices of the peace, and justices of oyer and terminer. They hold a court four times a year, to take cognizance of all crimes and misdemeanours committed within the city ; two aldermen, appointed by the mayor and recorder, hold a court on the forenoon of Monday and Thursday of every week, to judge of all matters which are cognizable before a justice of the peace.

The trade of Pennsylvania is principally carried on from this city, and there are few commercial ports in the world, where ships from Philadelphia may not be found in some season of the year. The number of vessels which entered this port in 1786, was 910; in '87, 870; in '88, 851; in '93, 1,414, of which 477 were ships; in '95, 1,620, viz. ships 158; barks and snows 26; brigs 450; schooners 506; sloops 480. Clearances 1,789. It is not mentioned how many of these were coasting vessels. The number of vessels built in 1795, was 31, of which 23 were ships and brigs. In the year 1792, Philadelphia shipped 420,000 barrels of flour and middlings; in '94, 300,751.

The environs of the city are very pleasant, and finely cultivated. In the northward are Kensington, near the suburbs on Delaware, noted for ship building; Germantown, a populous, neat village with 2 German churches; and Frankfort, another pretty village, both within 7 miles, besides many country seats. In the south is Darby, a small pleasant borough, above 7 miles distant; and on Schuylkill, 4 miles from the city, the botanical garden of Messrs. Bartrams. In the W. on the same river 18 acres of ground have been lately destined for a publick botanical garden. According to a list published of the births and deaths in the several religious societies of Philadelphia, it appears, that from August 1, 1792, to August 1, 1793, the births amounted to 2,511, and the deaths to 1,497. In the year 1793, Philadelphia was visited with a severe scourge, the yellow fever, which raged with uncommon violence for above 3 months, and in that short space swept off nearly 5,000 inhabitants. The humane efforts of a committee of health, appointed by the citizens, were highly instrumental in diminishing the calamity. A few weeks after this disorder ceased to rage, the trade of the city was restored in a manner incredible to any but eye witnesses. It is an honourable proof of the humane attention paid to the prisoners in this city, that of 4,060 debtors, and 4,000 criminals, who were confined in Philadelphia gaol between the 28th of Sept. 1780, and the 5th of Sept. 1790, only *twelve* died a natural death. In 1794, there were 9,000 houses in this city, and 400 which were building. The number of inhabitants within the city in 1800, was 41,220. The surburbs and county contained 39,789. Of all these only 84 were in slavery. The city and surburbs contain about 13,000 houses. Three hundred coaches owned by the citizens are evidence of their wealth. The streets are well lighted at night and kept remarkably clean. Philadelphia is 728 miles S. W. of Passamaquoddy, the easternmost part of the sea coast of the United States; 347 S. W. of Boston; 222 S. W. of Hartford; 95 S. W. of New-York; 102 N. E. of Baltimore; 144 N. E. of Washington, and 925 N. E. by N. of Savannah in Georgia.

The borough of Lancaster is the largest inland town in the United States. It is the seat of justice in Lancaster county, and by an act of the legislature, in 1799, made the seat of the state government, and stands on Conestoga creek, over which there is a neat stone bridge, 58 miles, as the new turnpike road now runs, a little north-west from Philadelphia. Its trade is already great and must increase, in proportion as the surrounding country populates. It contains about

1000 houses, chiefly of brick and stone, and in 1800, 4292 souls. The publick buildings are a handsome court-house, of brick, a gaol, a brick market-house, and houses of worship for German Calvinists, German Lutherans, Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Moravians, and Roman Catholicks.

Pittsburgh is the capital of Allegany county situated on a beautiful plain running to a point. The Allegany, which is a beautiful clear stream, on the N. and the Monongahela, which is a muddy stream on the S. uniting below where Fort du Quesne stood, form the majestick Ohio; which is there a quarter of a mile wide; 1,188 miles from its confluence with the Missisippi, and 500 above Limestone, in Kentucky. This town was laid out on Penn's plan, in the year 1765, on the eastern bank of the Monongahela, about 200 yards from Fort du Quesne, which was taken from the French, by the British, in 1760, and who changed its name to Fort Pitt, in honour of the late Earl of Chatham. It contained in 1800, about 350 houses and 1565 inhabitants, a gaol, court-house, Presbyterian church, a church for German Lutherans, an academy, 2 breweries, and a distillery. It has been lately fortified, and a party of troops stationed in it. The hills on the Monongahela side are very high, extend down the Ohio, and abound with coals. Before the revolution, one of these coal hills, it is said, took fire and continued burning 8 years; when it was effectually extinguished by part of the hill giving way and filling up the crater. On the back side of the town, from Grant's Hill, (so called from his army's being here cut to pieces by the Indians) there is a beautiful prospect of the two rivers, wafting along their separate streams till they meet and join at the point of the town. On every side, hills covered with trees, appear, to add simplicity and beauty to the scene. At the distance of 100 miles up the Allegany is a small creek, which in some places, boils or bubbles forth, like the waters of Hell Gate, in New-York state, from which proceeds an oily substance, deemed by the people of this country, singularly beneficial, and an infallible cure for weakness in the stomach, for rheumatick pains, for sore breasts in women, bruises, &c. The oil is gathered by the country people and Indians, who boil it, and bring it to Pittsburgh for sale; and there is scarcely a single inhabitant who does not possess a bottle of it, and is able to recount its many virtues, and its many cures. The navigation of the Ohio, in a dry season, is rather troublesome from Pittsburgh to the *Mingo Town*, about 75 miles; but fromt hence to the Missisippi there is always water enough for barges carrying from 100 to 200 tons burden, such as are used on the river Thames, between London and Oxford, viz. from 100 to 120 feet keel, 16 to 18 in breadth, four feet in depth, and when loaded, drawing about 3 feet water. During the season of the floods in the spring, vessels of 100 or 200 tons burden may go from Pittsburgh to the sea with safety, in 16 or 17 days, although the distance is upwards of 2,000 miles. It is 178 miles W. by N. of Carlisle; 303 in the same direction from Philadelphia. N. lat. 40° 31′ 44″, W. long. 80° 8′.

Bethlehem is situated on the river Lehigh, a western branch of the Delaware, 53 miles north of Philadelphia, in lat. 40° 37′. The town

being built partly on high, rising ground, and partly on the lower banks of the Monocacy, (a fine creek, which affords trout and other fish) has a very pleasant and healthy situation, and is frequently visited in the summer season by persons from different parts. The prospect is not extensive, being bounded very near by the chain of the Lehigh hills. To the northward is a tract of land called the dry lands.

In the year 1787, the number of inhabitants amounted to between 5 and 600, and the houses were about 60 in number, mostly good strong buildings of lime-stone. The town has since considerably increased.

Besides the church or publick meeting-hall, there are three large, spacious buildings, viz.

1. The single brethren's, or young men's house, facing the main street or publick road. Here the greatest part of the single tradesmen, journeymen, and apprentices of the town are boarded at a moderate rate, under the inspection of an elder and warden; and have, besides their publick meetings, their house for morning and evening devotions. Different trades are carried on in the house for the benefit of the same.

2. The single sisters', or young women's house, where they live under the care of female inspectors. Such as are not employed in private families, earn their bread mostly by spinning, sewing, fine needle work, knitting, and other female occupations.

The ladies are at liberty to go about their business in the town, or to take a walk for recreation; and some are employed in private families, or live with their parents; neither are they bound to remain single; for every year some of them enter into the marriage state.

As to their almost uniform dress, the women in general, for the sake of avoiding extravagance and the follies of fashion, have hitherto retained a simple dress, introduced among them in Germany, many years ago.

3. The house for the widows; where those who have not a house of their own, or means to have their own house furnished, live nearly the same way as do the single sisters. Such as are poor, infirm, or superannuated, are assisted or maintained by the congregation; as is the case with other members of the same, that are not able to obtain subsistence for themselves.

In the house adjoining the church, is the school for girls; and, since the year 1787, a boarding school for young ladies from different parts, who are instructed in reading and writing, (both English and German) grammar, arithmetick, history, geography, needle-work, musick, &c.

The minister of the place has the special care and inspection of this as well as of the boys' school, which is kept in a separate house, fitted for that purpose; where are taught reading and writing, in both languages, the rudiments of the Latin tongue, arithmetick, &c. These schools, especially that for the young ladies, are deservedly in very high repute; and scholars, more than can be accommodated, are offered from all parts of the United States.

The ferry, across the river, is of such particular contrivance, that a flat, large enough to carry a team of six horses, runs on a strong rope,

fixed and stretched across; and, by the mere force of the stream, without any other assistance, crosses the river backwards and forwards; the flat being always put in an oblique direction, with its foremost end verging towards the line described by the rope.

The greater part of the inhabitants, as well as the people in the neighbourhood, being of German extraction, this language is more in use than the English. The latter, however, is taught in the schools, and divine service performed in both languages.

Nazareth is 10 miles north from Bethlehem, and 63 north from Philadelphia. It is a tract of good land, containing about 5,000 acres, purchased originally by the Rev. Mr. George Whitefield, in 1740, and sold two years after to the brethren. The town was laid out almost in the centre of the tract, in 1772. Two streets cross each other at right angles, and form a square in the middle, of 340 by 200 feet. The largest building is a stone house, erected in 1755, named Nazareth hall, 98 feet by 46 long, and 54 in height. In the lowest story is a spacious meeting-hall or church. The upper part of the house is chiefly fitted for a boarding school; where youth, from different parts, are under the care and inspection of the minister of the place and several tutors; and are instructed in the English, German, elements of the Latin and French languages; book keeping, surveying, and other practical knowledge. Another good building, on the east side of Nazareth-hall, is inhabited by single sisters, who have the same regulation and mode of living as those in Bethlehem. Besides their principal manufactory for spinning and twisting cotton, they have lately begun to draw wax tapers.

The towns next in importance to those mentioned, are Carlisle, the seat of justice in Cumberland county, 120 miles west of Philadelphia. Here is Dickinson College, and about 300 stone houses, containing in 1800, 2000 inhabitants, who worship in three churches. Harrisburg, a thriving town, and the principal one in Dauphin county, 100 miles west by north from Philadelphia. Yorktown, eighty-eight miles west of Philadelphia, next in importance to Lancaster. Washington, a manufacturing town, 300 miles west of Philadelphia. Reading, 60 miles north-west of Philadelphia. Sunbury, 120 miles north-west of Philadelphia. There are more than one hundred towns in New-England, not noticed in this work, which are larger than many of the above named.

Curious Springs.] In the neighbourhood of Reading is a spring about 14 feet deep, and about 100 feet square. A full mill-stream issues from it. The waters are clear and full of fishes. From appearances, it is probable that this spring is the outlet of a very considerable river, which in a mile and a half or two miles above this place, sinks into the earth, and is conveyed to this outlet in a subterranean channel.

In the northern parts of Pennsylvania there is a creek called Oil creek, which empties into the Allegany river. It issues from a spring, on the top of which floats an oil, similar to that called Barbadoes tar; and from which one man may gather several gallons in a day. The troops sent to guard the western posts, halted at this spring, collected some of the oil, and bathed their joints with it. This gave them great

relief from the rheumatick complaints with which they were afflicted. The waters, of which the troops drank freely, operated as a gentle cathartick. [*See the account of Pittsburgh.*]

Remarkable Caves.] There are three remarkable grottos or caves in this state; one near Carlisle in Cumberland county; one in the township of Durham in Bucks county, and the other at Swetara, in Lancaster county. The latter is on the east bank of Swetara river, about two miles above its confluence with the Susquehannah. Its aperture is under a pretty high bank, and from 15 to 20 feet wide, and from seven to ten in height. You enter, by a gradual descent, so low as that the surface of the river is rather higher than the bottom of the cave, and in your progress pass through a number of passages and apartments of various dimensions, some low and narrow, others very high and spacious, vaulted by magnificent canopies, fretted with a variety of depending petrifactions, some of which are drawn to a great length by means of the constant exudation and accretion of petrifying matter, till solid pillars have been gradually formed. These appear as supports to the roof, which is of solid limestone, perhaps 20 feet thick. Thirty years ago there were ten such pillars, each six inches in diameter, and six feet high; all so ranged that the place they enclosed resembled a sanctuary in a Roman church. No royal throne ever exhibited more grandeur than this lusus naturæ. The resemblance of several monuments are found indented in the walls on the sides of the cave, which appear like the tombs of departed heroes. Suspended from the roof is "the bell," (which is nothing more than a stone projected in an unusual form) so called from the sound it occasions when struck, which is similar to that of a bell.

Some of the stalactites are of a colour like sugar candy, and others resemble loaf sugar; but their beauty is much defaced by the smoke of the torches which are frequently employed in conducting the curious traveller through this gloomy recess. The water which is exudated through the roof, runs down the declivity, and is both pleasant and wholesome to drink. There are several holes in the bottom of the cave, descending perpendicularly, perhaps, into an abyss below, which renders it dangerous to walk without a light. At the end of the cave is a pretty brook, which, after a short course, loses itself among the rocks. Beyond this brook is an outlet from the cave by a very narrow aperture. Through this the vapours continually pass outwards with a strong current of air, and ascend, resembling, at night, the smoke of a furnace. Part of these vapours and fogs appear, on ascending, to be condensed at the head of this great alembick, and the more volatile parts to be carried off through the aperture communicating with the exterior air before mentioned, by the force of the air in its passage.

Minerals.] It is said, that "a valuable Lead Mine has been lately discovered on Perkiomen creek near the Schuylkill. The richness of it has been ascertained by chymical process to be 70 per cent. The lead produced has proved to contain much silver. The bank of ore is said to be extensive, and advantageously situated to carry on the working of it with economy."

Curiosities.] On a high hill, near the Tyoga river, a little to the southward of the line which divides New-York from Pennsylvania, are to be seen the remains of an ancient fortification. The form of it is circular, and it is encompassed with an entrenchment. The entrenchment only remains. The Indians are entirely ignorant of the origin of these works. The hill is an excellent situation for a fort, and commands a delightful view of the country around it; which is low and fertile. There is a fortification of a similar kind at Unadila, in the flat lands, and they are numerous in the western counties. The stones, in all parts of the Allegany mountains, are full of sea shells. Not only the loose stones scattered through the vales, but those on the summits of the mountains are marked with these marine substances. [*Evans.*]

Those who believe the flood in the time of Noah covered all the high hills, and that the mountains were covered, behold these marine substances on the high mountains with great satisfaction; these seem to be the natural effect of such a deluge, and corroborate the account of Moses.

Constitution.] The supreme executive power of the commonwealth is vested in a governour; the legislative, in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and a house of representatives. The governour is chosen for three years, but cannot hold his office more than nine years in twelve. A plurality of votes makes a choice. The representatives are elected for one year; the senators for four. The latter are divided into four classes. The time of one class expires each year, whose seats are then filled by new elections. Each county chooses its representatives separately. The senators are chosen in districts formed by the legislature. There is to be an enumeration of the inhabitants once in seven years. The number of senators and representatives is, after each enumeration, to be fixed by the legislature, and apportioned among the several counties and districts, according to the number of taxable inhabitants. There can never be fewer than sixty, nor more than one hundred representatives. The number of senators cannot be less than one fourth, nor greater than one third of the representatives. The elections are made on the second Tuesday of October. The general assembly meets on the first Tuesday of December, in each year, unless sooner convened by the governour. A majority of each house makes a quorum to do business, and a less number may adjourn from day to day and compel the attendance of members. Each house chooses its speaker and other officers, judges of the qualifications of its members, and establishes the rules of its proceedings. Impeachments are made by the house of representatives, and tried by the senate. All bills for raising revenue originate in the lower house, but the senate may propose amendments. The senators and representatives are free from arrests, while attending the publick business, except in cases of treason, felony, and breach of the peace; and are not liable to be questioned concerning any thing said in publick debate. They are compensated out of the publick treasury, from which no money can be drawn but in consequence of appropriation by law. The journals of both houses are published weekly, and their doors kept open, unless the business require secrecy. All bills which have passed both houses, must be presented to the governour. If he approve he must sign them,

but if he does not approve he must return them, within ten days, with his objections, to the house in which they originated. No bills so returned shall become a law, unless it be repassed by two thirds of both houses. The governour is commander in chief of the military force; may remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment; may require information from all executive officers; may, on extraordinary occasion, convene the general assembly, and adjourn it, for any term not exceeding four months, in case the two branches cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform the general assembly of the state of the commonwealth; recommend such measures as he shall judge expedient; and see that the laws are faithfully executed. In case of vacancy in the office of governour, the speaker of the senate exercises that office. The judicial power is vested in a supreme and inferior court, the judges of which, and justices of the peace, are appointed by the governour, and commissioned during good behaviour; but are removeable on the address of both houses. The other officers of the state are appointed, some by the governour, some by the general assembly, and some by the people. The qualifications for an elector are 21 years of age, 2 years' residence, and payment of taxes. They are privileged from arrests in civil actions, while attending elections. Those for a representative are 21 years of age, and three years inhabitancy. For a senator, 25 years of age, and 4 years inhabitancy. For a governour, 30 years of age, and 7 years inhabitancy. The governour can hold no other office. The senators and representatives none, but of attorney at law, and in the militia. No person, holding an office of trust, or profit, under the United States, can hold any office in this state, to which a salary is by law annexed. All the officers of the state are liable to impeachment, and are bound by oath, or affirmation, to support the constitution, and perform the duties of their offices.

The declaration of rights asserts the natural freedom and equality of all; liberty of conscience; freedom of election, and of the press; subordination of the military to the civil powers; trial by jury; security from unreasonable searches and seizures; a right to an equal distribution of justice; to be heard in criminal prosecutions; to petition for the redress of grievances; to bear arms; and to emigrate from the state. It declares that all power is inherent in the people, and that they may, at any time, alter their form of government; that no person shall be obliged to maintain religious worship, or support any ministry; that all persons, believing in the being of a God, and a future state of rewards and punishments, are eligible to office; that laws cannot be suspended but by the legislature; that all persons shall be bailable, unless for capital offences, when the proof is evident, or presumption strong; that every debtor shall be released from prison, on delivering his estate to his creditors, according to law, except there be strong presumption of fraud; that the privileges of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended but in time of rebellion, or publick danger; that no *ex post facto* law shall be made; that no person shall be attainted by the legislature, or forfeit his estate for longer term than his own life; that no title of nobility, or hereditary distinction, shall ever be granted.

The foregoing constitution was ratified in 1790. A disposition is manifested by a part of the inhabitants to alter this constitution. Whether or not it will be effected, is uncertain.

Among other useful publick laws of this state, are, one that declares all rivers and creeks to be highways—a law for the emancipation of negroes—a bankrupt law, nearly on the model of the bankrupt laws of England—a law commuting hard labour for a long term of years, for death, as a punishment of many crimes which are made capital by the laws of England. Murder, arson, and one or two other crimes, are yet punished with death.

Forts, &c.] On Mud Island is a citadel, and a fort not completed. Opposite Mud Island, on a sand bar, a large pier has been erected, as the foundation for a battery, to make a cross fire. The garrison about to be erected by the United States, at Presque Isle, will be upon a very commanding spot, just opposite the entrance of the bay. The town commences 30 yards west of the old British fort, leaving a vacancy of 600 yards, which will serve for a military parade and publick walk, and add much to the beauty of the place. The town, which is now building, will extend nearly three miles along the lake, and one mile back.

New Inventions.] These have been numerous and useful. Among others are the following: A new model of the planetary worlds, by Mr. Rittenhouse, commonly, but improperly, called an orrery—a quadrant, by Mr. Godfrey, called by the plagiary name of Hadley's quadrant—a steam boat, so constructed, as that by the assistance of steam, operating on certain machinery within the boat, it moves with considerable rapidity against the stream, without the aid of hands. Messrs. Fitch and Rumsay contend with each other, for the honour of this invention. Besides these there have been invented many manufacturing machines, for carding, spinning, winnowing, &c. which perform an immense deal of work with very little manual assistance.* Dr. Franklin, the great improver of electrical science, had great merit as a promoter of general useful knowledge.

History.] Pennsylvania was granted by king Charles II. to Mr. William Penn, son of the famous admiral Penn, in consideration of his father's services to the crown.† Mr. Penn's petition for the grant was presented to the king in 1680; and after considerable delays, occasioned by Lord Baltimore's agent, who apprehended it might interfere with the Maryland patent, the charter of Pennsylvania received the royal signature on the 4th of March, 1681. To secure his title against all claims, and prevent future altercation, Mr. Penn procured a quit-claim deed from the duke of York, of all the lands, covered by his own patent, to which the duke could have the least pretensions.

This deed bears date, August 21, 1682. On the 24th of the same month, he obtained from the duke, by deed of feoffment, Newcastle,

* See Philosophical Transactions, for further accounts of useful discoveries and inventions.

† A large debt was due from the crown to Mr. Penn, a part of which he offered to remit, on condition he obtained his grant. This, whatever benevolent motives were held out to the world, must have been a principal consideration with the king in making the grant.

with twelve miles of the adjacent territory, and the land south to the Hoarkills. In December following, Mr. Penn effected a union of the lower counties with the province of Pennsylvania.*

The first frame of government for Pennsylvania is dated in 1682. By this form all legislative powers are vested in the governour and freemen of the province, in the provincial council, and a general assembly. The council was to consist of seventy-two members, chosen by the freemen; of which the governour or his deputy was perpetual president, with a treble vote. One third of this council went out of office every year, and their seats were supplied by new elections.

The general assembly was at first to consist of all the freemen, afterwards of two hundred, and never to exceed five hundred.

In 1683, Mr. Penn offered another frame of government, in which the number of representatives was reduced, and the governour vested with a negative upon all bills, passed in assembly. By several specious arguments the people were persuaded to accept this frame of government.

Not long after a dispute between Mr. Penn and Lord Baltimore required the former to go to England, and he committed the administration of government to five commissioners, taken from the council. In 1686, Mr. Penn required the commissioners to dissolve the frame of government; but not being able to effect his purpose, he, in 1688, appointed Capt. John Blackwell his deputy. From this period, the proprietors usually resided in England, and administered the government by deputies, who were devoted to their interest. Jealousies arose between the people and their governours, which never ceased till the late revolution. The primary cause of their jealousies, was an attempt of the proprietary to extend his own power, and abridge that of the assembly; and the consequence was, incessant disputes and dissensions in the legislature.

In 1689, governour Blackwell, finding himself opposed in his views, had recourse to artifice, and prevailed on certain members of the council to withdraw themselves from the house; thus defeating the measures of the legislature.† The house voted this to be treachery, and addressed the governour on the occasion.

In 1693, the king and queen assumed the government into their own hands. Col. Fletcher was appointed governour of New-York and Pennsylvania by one and the same commission, with equal powers in both provinces. By this commission, the number of counsellors in Pennsylvania was reduced.

Under the administration of governour Markham, in 1696, a new form of government was established in Pennsylvania. The election of the council and assembly now became annual, and the legislature, with their powers and forms of proceeding, was new modelled.

In 1699, the proprietary arrived from England and assumed the reins of government. While he remained in Pennsylvania, the last

* See Dr. Franklin's historical review of the constitution and government of Pennsylvania, page 16.

† Two instances of a secession of members from the assembly with similar views have taken place since the revolution, and seems to have been copied from the example in 1689.

charter of privileges or frame of government, which continued till the revolution, was agreed upon and established. This was completed and delivered to the people by the proprietary, October 18, 1701, just on his embarking for England. The inhabitants of the *Territory*, as it was then called, or the lower counties, refused to accept this charter, and thus separated themselves from the province of Pennsylvania. They afterwards had their own assembly, in which the governeur of Pennsylvania used to preside.

In September 1700, the Susquehannah Indians granted to Mr. Penn all their lands on both sides the river. The Susquehannah, Shawanese, and Patomak Indians, however, entered into articles of agreement with Mr. Penn, by which, on certain conditions of peaceable and friendly behaviour, they were permitted to settle about the head of Patomak, in the province of Pennsylvania. The Conostoga chiefs also, in 1701, ratified the grant of the Susquehannah Indians, made the preceding year.

In 1708, Mr. Penn obtained from the sachems of the country, a confirmation of the grants made by former Indians, of all the lands from Duck Creek to the mountains, and from the Delaware to the Susquehannah. In this deed, the Sachems declared, that "they had seen, and heard read divers prior deeds which had been given to Mr. Penn by former chiefs."

While Mr. Penn was in America, he erected Philadelphia into a corporation. The charter was dated October 25, 1701; by which the police of the city was vested in a mayor, recorder, aldermen and common council, with power to enquire into treasons, murders and other felonies; and to enquire into and punish smaller crimes. The corporation had also extensive civil jurisdiction; but it was dissolved at the late revolution, and Philadelphia was governed like other counties in the state, till 1789, when it was again incorporated.

By the favourable terms which Mr. Penn offered to settlers, and an unlimited toleration of all religious denominations, the population of the province was extremely rapid. Notwithstanding the attempts of the proprietary or his governours, to extend his own power, and accumulate property by procuring grants from the people, and exempting his lands from taxation, the government was generally mild, and the burdens of the people by no means oppressive. The selfish designs of the proprietaries were vigorously and constantly opposed by the assembly, whose firmness preserved the charter rights of the province.

From the first establishment of Pennsylvania, a spirit of dispute appears to have prevailed among its inhabitants. During the life time of William Penn, the constitution had been three times altered. After this period, the history of Pennsylvania is little else than the recital of the quarrels between the proprietaries, or their governours, and the assembly. The proprietaries contended for the right of exempting their lands from taxes: to which the assembly would by no means consent. This subject of dispute interfered in almost every question, and prevented the most salutary laws from being enacted. This, at times, subjected the people to great inconveniences.

At the revolution, the government was abolished. The proprietaries were absent, and the people, by their representatives, formed a new constitution on republican principles. The proprietaries were excluded from all share in the government, and the legislature offered them £130,090 in lieu of all quit-rents, which was finally accepted. The proprietaries however still possess in Pennsylvania many large tracts of excellent land.

The constitution established at the revolution was a source of party spirit. The chief objection of those who disapproved it, was to a legislature composed of one branch. This party was styled republicans; the other, constitutionalists. Their efforts were incessantly exerted to render each other odious, and to frustrate and thwart the measures brought forward by their opponents. Truth calls on us to declare, that in many important instances, the dearest interests of the community were sacrificed to gratify the spirit of faction, and that neither party could lay just claim to an exemption from the charge. The reins of government were alternately possessed by these parties, according as their respective measures were popular or otherwise. At length the republicans acquired the ascendancy, and the constitution underwent an alteration that assimilated it nearly to the federal constitution.

At present the state enjoys a high degree of prosperity. Her population has greatly increased. Her commerce flourishes. New settlements are spreading in various directions.

The year 1794 was distinguished by an alarming insurrection of the inhabitants in the western counties in this state, the *ostensible* cause of which was "discontent with an excise upon Whiskey." The *real* cause was not then generally known. Much light has been thrown on this affair, (which for a time threatened us with all the calamities of civil war) by the intercepted letter of Mr. Fauchet. From this letter, this insurrection appears to have been but a part of a deep laid scheme to involve this country in some great calamity.* But by the wise, seasonable and decisive measures of the supreme executive, and the other officers of government, which were warmly supported by the great body of enlightened citizens throughout the United States, this daring insurrection was quelled almost without bloodshed; tranquillity was restored, and the confidence of the people increased in the stability, energy, and promptness of the federal government.

In 1797, the city of Philadelphia was again visited with desolating sickness, of which, 1276 persons died.

A history of this state has been written by Mr. Proud.

* "To confine the present crisis to the simple question of the excise, is to reduce it far below its true scale; it is indubitably connected with a general explosion for some time prepared in the publick mind, but which this local and precipitate eruption will cause to miscarry, or at least check for a long time. In order to see the real cause, in order to calculate the effect and the consequences, we must ascend to the origin of the parties existing in the state, and retrace their progress." *Fauchet's letter.*

A list of the several Proprietors, Governours, Lieutenant-Governours and Presidents of the Province, with the times of their respective administration.

PROPRIETORS.

The Honourable William Penn, born 1664, died 1718.
Thomas Penn, and
Richard Penn, died 1771.
John Penn, sen. and
John Penn, jun.

GOVERNOURS, &c.

Lieutenant-Governour, William Penn, *Propr.* from Oct. 1682 to Aug. 1684.
President, Thomas Lloyd, Aug. 1684 to Dec. 1688.
Dept. Lt. Governour, John Blackwell, Dec. 1688 to Feb. 1689-90.
President and Council governed, Feb. 1689-90 to April 26, 1693.
Deputy Governour, Benjamin Fletcher, 26 April, 1693, to 3 June 1693.
Lieutenant-Governour, William Markham, 3 June, 1693, to Dec. 1699.
Lieutenant-Governour, William Penn, *Prop.* 3 Dec. 1699, to 1 Nov. 1701.
Dept. Lt. Governour, Andrew Hamilton, 1 Nov. 1701, to Feb. 1702-3.
President and Council governed Feb. 1702-3 to Feb. 1703-4.
Dept. Lt. Governour, John Evans, Feb. 1703-4 to Feb. 1708-9.
Charles Gookin, March, 1708-9 to 1717.
Sir William Keith, *Bart.* 1717 to June 1726.
Patrick Gordon, June, 1726 to 1736.
George Thomas, 1738 to 1747.
President, Anthony Palmer, 1747 to 1748.
Dept. Lt. Governour, James Hamilton, 1748 to Oct. 1754.
Robert Hunter Morris, Oct. 1754 to 19 Aug. 1756.
William Denny, 19 Aug. 1756 to 17 Nov. 1759.
James Hamilton, 17 Nov. 1759 to 31 Oct. 1763.
John Penn, 31 Oct. 1763 to 6 May, 1771.
President, James Hamilton, 6 May 1771 to 16 Oct. 1771.
Lieutenant-Governour, Richard Penn, 16 Oct. 1771.

Presidents of the Supreme Executive Council of the state of Pennsylvania,
Thomas Wharton, March, 1777 to April, 1778.
Joseph Reed, Oct. 1778 to Oct. 1781.
William Moore, Nov. 1781 to Nov. 1782.
John Dickinson, Nov. 1782 to Oct. 1785.
Benjamin Franklin, Oct. 1785 to Oct. 1788.
Thomas Mifflin, Oct. 1788 to Oct. 1790.

Governours, Thomas Mifflin, Oct. 1790. died
Thomas M'Kean, 1800.

DELAWARE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 92 } between { 38° 29′ 30″ and 39° 54′ north latitude.
Breadth 24 } { Merid. of Philadel. and 0° 40′ W. long.

Containing 2,000 square miles, or 1,200,000 acres.

Boundaries and Name. BOUNDED east by Delaware river and bay and the Atlantick Ocean; south and west by Maryland; north by Pennsylvania. It was named after Lord De La War, who completed the settlement of Virginia.

Civil Divisions.] This state is divided into three counties, which are subdiyided into hundreds.

Counties.	No. Towns.	No. Inhab. in 1790.	No. Inhab. in 1800.	Chief Towns.	No. Slaves in 1790.	No. Slaves in 1800.
Newcastle	9	19,686	25,361	Newcastle	2,562	1,828
Kent	5	18,920	19,554	Dover	2,300	1,485
Sussex	10	20,488	19,358	Georgetown	4,025	2,830
Total 3	24	59,054	64,273		8,887	6,143

Before the revolution this district of country was denominated, "*The three lower counties,*" and was originally attached to Pennsylvania.

Rivers and Creeks.] The eastern side of the state is indented with a large number of creeks, or small rivers, which generally have a short course, soft banks, numerous shoals, and are skirted with very extensive marshes, and empty into the river and bay of Delaware. In the southern and western parts of this state, spring the head waters of Pocomoke, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Choptank, Chester, Sassafras and Bohemia rivers, all falling into Chesapeak Bay; some of them are navigable 20 or 30 miles into the country, for vessels of 50 or 60 tons.

Publick Improvements.] Just before the commencement of the war, a work of considerable importance was begun at Lewes, in the southern part of the state, viz. the erection of a bridge and causeway from the town, over the creek and marsh to the opposite cape. This expensive work was just completed when the British ships first came into the road of Lewes. In order to prevent too easy a communication, they partially removed it; and it being afterwards neglected, it was in complete ruins at the close of the war. A bridge upon the same plan, but upon a new foundation, has lately been erected, at the sole expense of individuals. It extends about a quarter of a mile, from the town to the beach, over a wide creek and marsh. The inhabitants are compensated for their expense, by the facility of the communication between the town and the cape.

A law has been passed, authorising the digging a canal between the waters of the Chesapeak bay and Delaware river. This, when completed, will open to the merchants of Philadelphia and Wilmington, a ready communication with all the country watered by the Susquehannah. Another law was likewise passed for opening a canal between Levites creek and Rehoboth bay.

Face of the Country, Soil and Productions. The state of Delaware, the upper parts of the county of Newcastle excepted, is, to speak generally, extremely low and level. Large quantities of stagnant water, at particular seasons of the year, overspreading a great proportion of the land, render it equally unfit for the purposes of agriculture, and injurious to the health of the inhabitants. The spine, or highest ridge of the peninsula, runs through the state of Delaware, inclined to the eastern or Delaware side. It is designated in Sussex, Kent, and part, of Newcastle county, by a remarkable chain of swamps, from which the waters descend on each side, passing, on the east, to the Delaware, and on the west to the Chesapeak. Many of the shrubs and plants, growing in these swamps, are similar to those found on the highest mountains.

Delaware is chiefly an agricultural state. It includes a very fertile tract of country; and scarcely any part of the union can be settled more adapted to the different purposes of agriculture, or in which a great variety of the most useful productions can be so conveniently and plentifully reared. The soil along the Delaware river, and from eight to ten miles into the interior country, is generally a rich clay, producing large timber, and well adapted to the various purposes of agriculture. Thence to the swamps above mentioned, the soil is light, sandy, and of an inferiour quality.

The general aspect of the country is very favourable for cultivation. Excepting some of the upper parts of the county of Newcastle, the surface of the state is very little broken or irregular. The heights of Christiana are lofty and commanding; some of the hills of Brandywine are rough and stony; but descending from these, and a few others, the lower country is so little diversified as almost to form one extended plain. In the county of Newcastle, the soil consists of a strong clay; in Kent, there is a considerable mixture of sand; and in Sussex, the quantity of sand altogether predominates. Wheat is the staple of this state. It grows here in such perfection as not only to be particularly sought by the manufacturers of flour throughout the union, but also to be distinguished and preferred, for its superior qualities, in foreign markets. This wheat possesses an uncommon softness and whiteness, very favourable to the manufacture of superfine flour, and in other respects far exceeds the hard and flinty grains raised in general on the higher lands. Besides wheat, this state generally produces plentiful crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, buckwheat, and potatoes. It abounds in natural and artificial meadows, containing a large variety of grasses. Hemp, cotton, and silk, if properly attended to, doubtless would flourish very well.

The county of Sussex, besides producing a considerable quantity of grain, particularly of Indian corn, possesses excellent grazing lands. This county also exports very large quantities of lumber, obtained

chiefly from an extensive swamp, called the *Indian river* or Cypress Swamp, lying partly within this state, and partly in the state of Maryland. This morass extends six miles from east to west, and nearly twelve from north to south, including an area of nearly 50,000 acres of land. The whole of this swamp is a high and level bason, very wet, though undoubtedly the highest land between the sea and the bay, whence the Pokomoke descends on one side, and Indian River and St. Martin's on the other. This swamp contains a great variety of plants, trees, wild beasts, birds and reptiles.

Chief Towns.] Wilmington is a pleasant town, north latitude 39° 43′ 18″, 27 miles south-west of Philadelphia, containing about 500 houses, mostly brick, and nearly 3,000 inhabitants. It is situated two miles west of the river Delaware, between Christiana and Brandywine creeks, which, at this place, are about one mile from each other; but uniting below the town, they join the Delaware in one stream 400 yards at the mouth—the site of the principal part of the town is the south-west side of a hill, which rises 109 feet above the tide. On the north-east side of the same hill, there are 13 mills for grain, and a considerable number of handsome dwelling-houses, which form a beautiful appendage to the town. The Christiana admits vessels of 14 feet draught of water to the town, and those of six feet draught eight miles further, where the navigation ends; and the Brandywine admits those of seven feet draught to the mills. About the year 1735, the first houses were built at this place; and the town was incorporated a few years afterwards. Its officers are two burgesses, six assistants, and two constables, all of whom are chosen annually. There are 6 places of publick worship, viz. two of Presbyterians, one of Friends, one of Episcopalians, one of Methodists, and one of Baptists. There is also a publick edifice, built of stone, 120 feet in front, and 40 feet in depth, three stories high, for the reception of the paupers in Newcastle county. There is also another stone building, which was originally intended for an academy, where a school was supported some time with considerable reputation; but, through a defect in the constitution of the seminary or some other causes, this building was for a time entirely neglected as a place of tuition. It has since been occupied for its original purpose, and the classicks are now taught here. There are nearly 300 children in the different schools of the town. A market is held twice a week, and is well supplied with provisions. Almost the whole of the foreign exports of Delaware are from this place; the trade from this state to Philadelphia is great, being the principal source whence that city draws its staple commodity. No less than 265,000 barrels of flour, 300,000 bushels of wheat, 170,000 bushels of Indian corn, besides barley, oats, flax-seed, paper, slit iron, snuff, salted provisions, &c. &c. to a very considerable amount, are annually sent from the waters of the Delaware state; of which the Christiana is by far the most productive, and probably many times as much so as any other creek or river of like magnitude in the union—245,000 barrels of flour, and other articles to the amount of 80,000 dollars more, being from this creek; of which, to the value of 550,000 dollars, are manufactured on its northern bank, within two or three miles of the navigation. Among other branches of industry exercised

in and near Wilmington, are a cotton manufactory in considerable forwardness; a bolting cloth manufactory has lately been established by an ingenious European; both of which promise fair to be a lasting advantage to the country. In the county of Newcastle are several fulling-mills, two snuff-mills, one slitting-mill, four paper-mills, and sixty mills for grinding grain, all of which are turned by water. But though Wilmington and its neighbourhood are probably already the greatest seat of manufactures in the United States, yet, they are capable of being much improved in this respect, as the country is hilly and abounds with running water; the Brandywine alone might, with a moderate expense, when compared with the object, be brought to the top of the hill upon which Wilmington is situated, whereby a fall sufficient for forty mills, in addition to those already built, would be obtained. The heights near Wilmington afford a number of agreeable prospects; from some of which may be seen the town, the adjacent meadows, and four adjoining states. No regular account of the births and burials has been kept, but the place is healthy. The number of children under sixteen, is probably equal to that of any town which is not more populous: and, according to an accurate account taken in the year 1794, there were upwards of 160 persons above 60 years old. The legislature of this state, in 1796, passed an act to incorporate a bank in this town.

Dover, in the county of Kent, is the seat of government. It stands on Jones' creek, a few miles from the Delaware river, and consists of about 100 houses, principally of brick. Four streets intersect each other at right angles, whose incidences form a spacious parade, on the east side of which is an elegant state-house of brick. The town has a lively appearance and drives on a considerable trade with Philadelphia. Wheat is the principal article of export. The landing is five or six miles from the town of Dover.

Newcastle is 35 miles below Philadelphia, and agreeably situated on the west bank of Delaware river. It was first settled by the Swedes, about the year 1627, and called Stockholm. It was afterwards taken by the Dutch and called New-Amsterdam. When it fell into the hands of the English, it was called by its present name. It contains about 60 houses which have the aspect of decay, and was formerly the seat of government. This is the first town that was settled on Delaware river.

Milford is situated at the source of a small river, 15 miles from Delaware bay, and 150 southward of Philadelphia. This town, which contains about 80 houses, has been built, except one house, since the revolution. It is laid out with much good taste, and is by no means disagreeable. The inhabitants are Episcopalians, Quakers and Methodists.

Duck Creek Cross Roads, is 12 miles north-west from Dover, and has 80 or 90 houses which stand on one street. It carries on a considerable trade with Philadelphia, and is one of the largest wheat markets in the state. Kent is also a place of considerable trade.

Port Penn is situated upon the shore of the Delaware, ten miles south of Newcastle. It contains but few inhabitants; and its commerce is small.

Newport is situated upon the Christiana Creek, three miles west of Wilmington. It contains about 200 inhabitants. The principal business is to transport flour to Philadelphia, and to bring in return foreign articles for the consumption of the country.

Christianabridge is at the head of the navigable part of the Christiana, eight miles south-west of Wilmington. It contains about 200 inhabitants. Its commerce is similar to that of Newport, but somewhat more considerable; being the greatest carrying-place between the navigable waters of the Delaware and Chesapeak, which are 13 miles asunder at this place.

Appoquinimink bridge is 23 miles south of Wilmington; the village contains about 200 inhabitants. The principal business is the transportation of flour and grain to Philadelphia and Brandywine, and the sale of foreign goods for the consumption of the neighbourhood.

Lewistown is situated a few miles above the light-house, on Cape Henlopen. It contains about 150 houses, built chiefly on a street which is more than three miles in length, and extending along a creek which separates the town from the pitch of the cape. The situation is high, and commands a full prospect of the light-house, and the sea. The court-house and gaol are commodious buildings, and give an air of importance to the town. The situation of this place must at some future time render it of considerable importance. Placed at the entrance of a bay, which is crowded with vessels from all parts of the world, and which is frequently closed with ice a part of the winter season, necessity seems to require, and nature seems to suggest, the forming this port into a harbour for shipping. Nothing has prevented this heretofore, but the deficiency of water in the creek. This want can be cheaply and easily supplied by a small canal, so as to afford a passage for the waters of Rehoboth into Lewes creek, which would ensure an adequate supply. The circumjacent country is beautifully diversified with hills, wood, streams and lakes, forming an agreeable contrast to the naked sandy beach, which terminates in the cape; but it is greatly infested with musketoes and sand flies.

Georgetown is about 15 miles west of Lewistown, and is now the seat of government for Sussex county. It contained, in 1804, about 30 or 40 houses, all built within a few years. The courts were removed to this place as being more central than Lewis.

Literature.] There is no college in this state. There is an academy at Wilmington, and another at Newark, incorporated in 1769. The legislature, during their session in January, 1796, passed an act to create a fund for the establishment of schools throughout the state.

Trade and Manufactures.] We have already mentioned wheat as the staple commodity of this state. This is manufactured into flour, and exported in large quantities. The exports from the port of Wilmington, where a number of square-rigged vessels are owned, for the year 1786, in the article of flour, was 20,783 barrels superfine, 457 do. common, 256 do. middling, and 346 do. ship stuff. The manufacture of flour is carried to a higher degree of perfection in this

state than in any other in the union. Besides the well constructed mills on Red clay and White clay creeks, and other streams in different parts of the state, the celebrated collection of mills at Brandywine merit a particular description. Here are to be seen, at one view, 12 merchant mills (besides a saw mill) which have double that number of pairs of stones, all of superior dimensions, and excellent construction. These mills are 3 miles from the mouth of the creek on which they stand, half a mile from Wilmington, and 27 from Philadelphia, on the post road from the eastern to the southern states. They are called the Brandywine mills,* from the stream on which they are erected. This stream rises near the Welch mountains in Pennsylvania, and, after a winding course of 30 or 40 miles through falls, which furnish numerous seats (130 of which are already occupied) for every species of water works, empties into Christiana creek, near Wilmington. The quantity of wheat manufactured at these mills, annually, is not accurately ascertained. It is estimated, however, by the best informed on the subject, that these mills can grind 400,000 bushels in a year. But although they are capable of manufacturing this quantity yearly, yet from the difficulty of procuring a permanent supply of grain, the instability of the flour market and other circumstances, there are not commonly more than from about 290 to 300,000 bushels of wheat and corn manufactured here annually. In the fall of 1789, and spring of 1790, there were made at the Brandywine mills 50,000 barrels of superfine flour, 1,354 do. of common, 400 do. middling, as many of ship stuff, and 2,000 do. corn meal. The quantity of wheat and corn ground, from which this flour, &c. was made, was 308,000 bushels, equal to the export in those articles from the port of Philadelphia for the same year.

These mills give employ to about 200 persons, viz. about 40 to tend the mills, from 50 to 70 coopers to make casks for the flour, a sufficient number to man 12 sloops of about 30 tons each, which are employed in the transportation of the wheat and flour, the rest in various other occupations connected with the mills. The navigation quite to these mills is such, that a vessel carrying 1000 bushels of wheat may be laid along side of any of these mills; and beside some of them the water is of sufficient depth to admit vessels of twice the above size. The vessels are unloaded with astonishing expedition. There have been instances of 1000 bushels being carried to the height of 4 stories in 4 hours. It is frequently the case that vessels with 1000 bushels of wheat come up with flood tide, unlade and go away the succeeding ebb with 300 barrels of flour on board. In consequence of the machines introduced by the ingenious Mr. Oliver Evans, three quarters of the manual labour before found necessary is now sufficient for every purpose. By means of these machines, when made use of in the full extent proposed by the inventor, the wheat will be received on the shallop's deck—thence carried to the upper loft of the mill—and a considerable portion of the same returned in flour on the lower floor, ready for packing, without the assistance of manual labour but

* In consequence of the destruction of the wheat by the Hessian fly, these mills, for a number of years past, have not had full employment.

in a very small degree, in proportion to the business done. The transportation of flour from the mills to the port of Wilmington, does not require half an hour, and it is frequently the case that a cargo is taken from the mills and delivered at Philadelphia the same day. The situation of these mills is very pleasant and healthful. The first mill was built here about 50 years since. There is now a small town of 40 houses, principally stone and brick, which, together with the mills and the vessels loading and unloading beside them, furnish a charming prospect from the bridge, from whence they are all in full view.

Besides the wheat and flour trade, this state exports lumber and various other articles. The amount of exports for the year ending September 30, 1791, was 119,878 dollars, 93 cents—ditto 1792, 133,972 dollars, 27 cents—ditto 1793, 93,559 dollars, 45 cents—ditto 1794, 207,985 dollars, 33 cents—ditto 1795, 158,041 dollars, 21 cents—1804, 697,396.

Light-House.] The light-house, near the town of Lewes, was burnt in 1777. Since the war it has been completed and handsomely repaired. It is a fine stone structure, 8 stories high; the annual expense of which is estimated at about 650l. currency.

Religion.] In this state there is a variety of religious denominations. Of the Presbyterian sect, there are 24 churches—of the Episcopal, 14—of the Friends, 8—of the Baptist 7—of the Methodist, a considerable number, especially in the two lower counties of Kent and Sussex: the number of their churches is not exactly ascertained. Besides these there is a Swedish church at Wilmington, which is one of the oldest churches in the United States. This church stands half a mile below Wilmington, on Christiana Creek. Near this place, during the 17th century, dwelt the principal part of the Swedes. The Creek was named after Christina, then queen of Sweden, daughter of the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus. Many descendants of Swedes now live in this vicinity, but have nearly lost their native language. With these have associated a number of English, German, Scotch and Irish people, who together form one independent congregation, under the pastoral care of an Episcopal clergyman. This is the only Episcopal church in Wilmington.

The Swedes in Delaware, with those of Jersey and Pennsylvania, were one ecclesiastick body during the Swedish mission. From mere generosity the Swedes furnished these churches with clergymen and valuable presents in religious books for a century. The missionaries were recalled, merely because the people, by mixing with others, had so far lost their mother tongue as to render the mission but a little useful. The Swedish Lutherans nearly agree in doctrines and rites with the church of England. Episcopal ordination is observed as a matter of expediency, not of divine institution. These churches now vacant have not fixed new charters, but it is supposed they will choose Lutheran and Episcopalian pastors. For near a century the three congregations have had houses and glebes for their ministers, obtained partly by donation, but principally by purchase. The church in Philadelphia has a good estate; it has also two chapels in the country, one 6, the other 18 miles distant. The mission here is not va-

cated ; not only the native Swedes, but the Danes and Norwegians, who come here, find great advantage from it.

Militia.] The militia of this state constitute one division, containing three brigades, one in each county. Each brigade contains three regiments.

Minerals.] In the county of Sussex, among the branches of the Nanticoke river, large quantities of bog iron ore are to be found. Before the revolution, this ore was worked to considerable extent ; it was thought to be of good quality, and peculiarly adapted to the purposes of castings. These works have chiefly fallen to decay.

Debt.] This state, as appears from the report of the commissioners for settling the accounts of the United States, with the individual states, who completed the business of their commission July 1, 1794, is indebted to the United States the large sum of six hundred and twelve thousand four hundred and twenty-eight dollars, which is more than twice as much as the debt of any of the other states.

Constitution.] The constitution of this state begins by declaring some of the rights of the people, and enumerates nearly the same that are mentioned in the declaration of rights of Pennsylvania. It then delegates the legislative power to a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives ; and the executive to a governour. All these are chosen by the people on the first Tuesday of October—the governour for three years ; but he is not eligible for the next three. He must be 30 years old, and have been an inhabitant of the state six years, and of the United States 12 years. A plurality of votes make a choice. The senators are chosen for three years, must be 27 years old, freeholders of 200 acres of land, or possessed of 100l. property, and have been inhabitants of the state three years. They are divided into three classes, the time of one class expiring each year, and their seats being filled by new elections. The representatives are chosen for one year, must be 24 years old, freeholders, and have been inhabitants three years. The constitution provides that there shall be seven representatives and three senators chosen by each county ; but the general assembly has power to increase the number, where two thirds of each branch shall think it expedient ; provided the number of senators shall never be greater than one half, nor less than one third, of the number of representatives. The general assembly meets on the first Tuesday of January, annually, unless sooner convened by the governour. Each branch has all the powers necessary for a branch of the legislature of a free and independent state. A majority of each constitutes a quorum to do business, and a less number may adjourn from day to day and compel the attendance of members. They are privileged from arrests while attending on publick business, except in cases of treason, felony and breach of the peace ; and for things said in publick debate, are not questionable elsewhere. They are compensated out of the publick treasury, from which no money can be drawn but in consequence of appropriation by law. Impeachments are made by the lower house, and tried by the senate. Revenue bills originate in the house of representatives, but the senate may propose alterations. A journal is kept of their proceedings, and published at the end of every session, and the doors of both houses are kept open, unless the business require secre-

sy. The governour is commander in chief of the military force; may remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment; may require information from all executive officers, may convene the general assembly on extraordinary occasions, and adjourn them to any time not exceeding three months, when they cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform them of affairs concerning the state; recommend to them such measures as he shall judge expedient, and see that the laws are faithfully executed. The speaker of the senate, and after him, the speaker of the house of representatives, shall exercise the office of governour, in case of vacancy. The judicial power is vested in a court of chancery, and several common law courts. The judges are appointed by the governour, and commissioned during good behaviour, and the justices of the peace for seven years; all removeable on the address of two thirds of both houses of assembly. The other officers of the state are appointed, some by the governour, some by the general assembly, and some by the people. No person concerned in any army or navy contract, or holding any office, except the attorney-general, officers usually appointed by the courts of justice, attornies at law, and officers in the militia, can be a senator, or representative. The governour can hold no other office. No federal officer can hold an office in this state to which a salary is by law annexed. The clergy are excluded from all civil offices. All officers are impeachable, and are bound by oath or affirmation to support the constitution, and perform the duties of their offices. All free white men, 21 years old, having been two years inhabitants, and paid taxes, are electors; and are privileged from arrests in civil actions while attending elections. The general assembly, with the approbation of the governour, have a right, under certain regulations and restrictions, to make amendments to this constitution. A convention may also be called, where a majority of the people shall signify their wish for it.

The foregoing constitution was ratified on the 12th of June, 1792.

History.] The reader will find a well written sketch of the history of this state in the American edition of the Encyclopedia, published by Thomas Dobson, in Philadelphia.

OHIO.*

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	200	between	38° 10′ and 42° N. lat.
Breadth	200		80° 30′ & 85° 45′ W. lon. from London.

CONTAINING, exclusive of the waters of Lake Erie and Sandusky, 39,128 square miles, equal to 25,043,637 acres; of which 17,409,717 acres have been purchased of the Indians. Of

* This state was admitted into the union by act of Congress, April 28, 1802; and organized March 3, 1803.

this purchase, if it may be so called, 580,159 acres have been appropriated toward the endowment and support of a university, an academy and schools, and for the maintenance of publick worship; 8,418,068 acres are private property; the remainder, viz. 8,411,490 acres, remain for the future disposition of Congress.*

Boundaries.] This state lies west of Pennsylvania, and is bounded south by the Ohio river; west by the Indiana Territory, from which it is divided by a line drawn from the mouth of the Great Miami river due north, nearly to the parallel of 42° N. lat.; north by Michigan Territory and Lake Erie, from the former of which it is divided by an east and west line drawn through the southerly extreme of Lake Michigan, and intersecting the territorial line in Lake Erie; east by Pennsylvania.

Civil Divisions and Population.] In 1804, this state was divided into 18 counties, as follows, viz.

Counties.	When constituted.	No. white males of 21 years and upwards, according to the ceasus of 1803.	Chief Towns.
Trumbull	1799	1111	Warren
Columbiana	1803	542	
Jefferson		1533	Steubenville
Bellmont	1803	1080	Pultney
Washington	1788	1246	Marietta
Gallia	1803	307	Galliopolis
Scioto	1803	219	Alexandria
Adams		906	Massiesburgh
Clermont		755	Williamsburgh
Hamilton	1790	1700	Cincinnati
Muskingum	1803	†	
Fairfield		1051	New-Lancaster
Ross		1982	Chilicothe
Franklin		240	Franklinton
Warren		854	
Greene		446	
Butler		836	
Montgomery		526	
		15,314	

The whole number of inhabitants in Ohio in 1803, was estimated at about 76,000, exclusive of several hundreds of people of colour, and the yearly increase by immigration, at about 12,000.

For judicial purposes the state is divided into three circuits, viz.

* The above information is derived from a work lately from the press, entitled a "Geographical and Historical Account of the state of Ohio," by the Rev. Thaddeus Mason Harris, A. M. This work, to which is prefixed, "A Journal of a Tour into the Territory N. W. of the Allegany mountains," and illustrated with a correct map, may be considered as a valuable addition to the geographical works of our country.

† Included in Washington county.

1. Butler, Clermont, Greene, Hamilton, Montgomery and Warren.
2. Adams, Fairfield, Franklin, Gallia, Ross, Scioto.
3. Bellmont, Columbiana, Jefferson, Trumbull and Washington.

Chief Towns.] Marietta, the chief town in Washington county, "is a handsome town, standing on a high bank on the west side of the Ohio river, just above the mouth of the Muskingum. The annual rise of the water has sometimes inundated the lower part of the town." [*Ellicott.*] The town is elegantly and commodiously laid out, with spacious streets intersecting each other at right angles, into 1,000 house lots of 90 feet in front by 180, and open squares, reserved for convenience and ornament. It contains upwards of ninety dwelling houses, beside shops, stores, &c. a gaol, court-house and academy; which last is the place of publick worship. Within the limits of this town are those ancient and curious forts hereafter described.

The situation of the town is excellent, and contributes greatly to the health of the industrious and enterprizing inhabitants. The scenery is richly diversified, uniting the beautiful with the magnificent. Lat. 39° 24′ 21″.

Chilicothe, the chief town of Ross county, and the seat of government in the state, is situated on the west side of Scioto river, above 100 miles from its mouth, and a few miles above its junction with Paint creek. The town is laid off on an extensive plain, on the same plan with Philadelphia, which city it resembles in its natural situation, as the town extends entirely across the plain from the Scioto to Paint creek. It contains about 150 dwelling houses, a gaol and state house. The country round about is charming indeed, and the land exceedingly fertile. There is here a Presbyterian church and a flourishing congregation. In the midst of the town there is an Indian grave, whose perpendicular height is 40 or 50 feet. The Scioto is boatable 40 miles above Chilicothe.

Cincinnati stands on the north bank of the Ohio, opposite the mouth of Licking river, 2½ miles south-west of Fort Washington, and about 8 miles westerly of Columbia. Both these towns lie between Great and Little Miami rivers. Cincinnati contains about 300 houses; and is 82 miles north by east of Frankfort; 90 north-west of Lexington, and 779 west by south of Philadelphia. In this town is Fort Washington, which commences the chain of forts, extending to the westward. Printing is introduced here, and a weekly paper issued. Some persons a short time since, in digging a well, on the hill, in this town, at the depth of 90 feet came to a *stump* of a tree, the roots of which were so sound that they had to be cut away with an axe; at 94 feet they came to another, which still bore evident marks of the axe, and on its top there appeared as if some *iron* tool had been consumed by rust. N. lat. 39° 6′, W. lon. 85° 44′.

Galliopolis is situated on a bend of the Ohio river, and nearly opposite to the mouth of the Great Kanhaway. It is said to contain about 100 houses, all inhabited by French people. In Nov. 1796, many of the inhabitants fell victims to the yellow fever, generated, as was supposed, by the unusual filthiness of the place. [*Ellicott.*] It is 140 miles eastward of Columbia, 300 S. W. of Pittsburg, and 559 S. W. of Philadelphia. N. lat. 39° 2′, W. lon. 83° 9′.

"The first settlers, finding themselves deceived in their purchase, visited with desolating sickness from the unhealthiness of the place, and endangered by the Indian war, which prevailed in their vicinity, after a residence of about four years, grew dissatisfied and chiefly dispersed, some to other settlements and some to Louisiana. Such as remained, obtained of Congress a grant of 20,000 acres, as an indemnification for the deception which had been played upon them in the original purchase of land speculators in France. This donation was located about twenty-four miles lower down the river, opposite Little Sandy Creek; and thither they removed." [*Harris.*]

Xenia, the seat of justice for the county of Greene, lies on the Little Miami, 6 miles from the medicinal springs, where a mine of gold or copper has been discovered.

Rivers.] The Ohio, which nearly half surrounds this state,* has already been described p. 186. To this I here add, that a canal, collateral with the Rapids in this river, is seriously contemplated, and surveys and estimates for the purpose, have already been made.

Muskingum, (which signifies *Elk's Eye*) is a gentle river, confined by banks so high as to prevent its overflowing. For 60 miles from its mouth, the land on each side is hilly. Beyond that distance it is more level and fertile. The river has sufficient water to carry 12 grist-mills. It is 150 yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, 180 miles below Pittsburgh, and navigable by large batteaux and barges to the Three Legs; and by small ones, to the lake at its head. From thence, by a portage of 7½ miles, a communication is opened to Lake Erie, through the Cayahoga, which is a stream of great utility, navigable the whole length without any obstructions from falls. From Lake Erie, the avenue is well known to the Hudson, in the state of New-York.

The Hockhocking resembles the Muskingum, though somewhat inferior in size. Hockhocking, in the Delaware tongue, signifies *bow-river*, so called because it runs crooked. It is about 12 rods wide; 65 miles from its mouth there is a fall of 10 feet. Eight miles above the falls it divides into three branches; the middle one has meadows a mile wide, 30 miles in length, extending to the head of the river. Here is a fine country. It is navigable for large boats about 70 miles, and for small ones much further. On the banks of this very useful stream are found inexhaustible quarries of free-stone, and beds of iron ore. Coal mines are frequent in the neighbourhood of this stream as they are in every part of the western territory. Beds of white and blue clay, of an excellent quality, are likewise found here, suitable for the manufacture of glass, crockery and earthen wares. Red bole, and many other useful fossils have been observed on the branches of this river.

The Scioto opens an extensive navigation. It is passable for large barges for 200 miles, with a portage of only 4 miles to the Sandusky, a good navigable stream that falls into Lake Erie. Through the Sandusky and Scioto lies the most common pass from Canada to the Ohio and Missisippi; one of the most extensive and useful commu-

* The Indians call the Alleyany branch, as well as the main river, Ohio, and appear to know it by no other name. [*Elliott.*]

nications that are to be found in any country. Prodigious extensions of territory are here connected; and, from the rapidity with which the western parts of Canada, Lake Erie and Kentucky countries are settling, we may anticipate an immense intercourse between them. The lands on the borders of these middle streams, from this circumstance alone, aside from their natural fertility, must be rendered vastly valuable. The flour, corn, flax, hemp, &c. raised for exportation in that great country between the Lakes Huron and Ontario, will find an outlet through Lake Erie, and these rivers, or down the Mississippi. The Ohio merchant can give a higher price than those of Quebeck, for these commodities; as they may be transported from the former to Florida and the West-India islands with less expense, risk and insurance, than from the latter; while the expense from the place of growth to the Ohio will not be one fourth of what it would be to Quebeck, and much less than even to the Oneida lake. The stream of Scioto is gentle, no where broken by falls; at some places in the spring of the year, it overflows its banks, providing for large natural rice plantations. Salt springs,* coal mines, white and blue clay and free stone, abound in the country adjoining this river. But the people on its banks are greatly afflicted with the fever and ague.

The Little Miami is too small for batteaux navigation. Its banks are good land, and so high as to prevent, in common, the overflowing of the water. Mills are erected on its waters.

The Great Miami has a very stony channel, and a swift stream, but no falls. It is formed of several large branches, which are passable for boats a great distance. One branch comes from the west, and rises in the Wabash country; another rises near the head waters of Miami river, which runs into Lake Erie; and a portage of 6 or 8 miles divides another branch of Sandusky river. It also interlocks with the Scioto.

The other rivers in this state run northerly into Lake Erie; (except Beaver Creek, which runs S. E. into the Ohio); these are

Grand river, whose mouth, in Lake Erie, lat. 42° is about 70 yards wide. For 3 miles it has depth of water for vessels of any size, except on the bar at its mouth, which has only 8 feet water. At particular seasons it is boatable nearly to its source.

Cayahoga, or Cayuga, sometimes called the Great river, empties in at the south bank of Lake Erie, 40 miles eastward of the mouth of Huron; having an Indian town of the same name on its bank. It is navigable for boats; and its mouth is wide, and deep enough to receive large sloops from the lake. Near this are the celebrated rocks which project over the lake. They are several miles in length and rise 40 or 50 feet perpendicular out of the water. Some parts of them consist of several strata of different colours, lying in a horizontal direction; and so exactly parallel, that they resemble the work of art. The view from the land is grand, but the water presents the most magnificent prospect of this sublime work of nature; it is attended, however, with great danger; for if the least storm arises,

* These salt springs, and 23,040 acres of land surrounding them, belong to the state, as do also the salt springs near the Muskingum, and the military tract. [*Harris.*]

the force of the surf is such, that no vessel can escape being dashed to pieces against the rocks. Col. Broadshead suffered shipwreck here in the late war, and lost a number of his men, when a strong wind arose, so that the last canoe narrowly escaped. The heathen Indians, when they pass this impending danger, offer a sacrifice of tobacco to the water. Part of the boundary line between the United States and the Indians, begins at the mouth of Cayahoga, and runs up the same to the portage between that and the Tuscarawa branch of the Muskingum.

Sandusky river rises near a branch of the Great Miami, between which is a portage of 9 miles. It pursues a N. E. course, and empties into the S. W. corner of Sandusky Lake. The Indians, by the treaty of Greenville, August 3, 1795, have ceded to the United States a tract of land 6 miles square upon Sandusky Lake, where a fort formerly stood, and two miles square at the Lower Rapids of Sandusky river. It is a considerable river, with level land on its bank, its stream gentle all the way to its mouth, where it is large enough to receive sloops.

Miami of the Lakes, falls into Lake Erie, at the S. W. corner of the Lake. A southern branch of this river communicates with the Great Miami, by a portage of 5 miles. The northern branch flows from a pond, and communicates with St. Joseph's river by a portage of 15 miles. This river is called by some writers Mawmee, also Omee, and Manmick.

Besides these, there are several smaller streams of no great importance.

Face of the Country, Soil, Productions and Commerce. "A great part of this country is agreeably uneven, and cannot be called mountainous, nor even hilly. A few miles back from the Ohio, however, in the upper or northern parts of the state, the land is hilly, and in many places too rough to admit of much cultivation. In some parts also in the country dividing the waters of the Ohio from the lakes, there are tracts, extending several miles, so flat, that the water stands till midsummer, rendering it waste land, as draining it would cost more labour than the land would be worth, and there is doubt, indeed, whether it could be effected in a wet season. In some places one can travel for miles without seeing the earth, and in that distance he will find the water not more than from a foot to 18 inches deep." [*Anon. Correspondent.*]

No part of the federal territory unites more advantages, in point of health, fertility, variety of production, and foreign intercourse, than that tract which stretches from the Muskingum to the Scioto and the Great Miami rivers.

Colonel Gordon, in his journal, speaking of a much larger range of country, in which this is included, and makes unquestionably the finest part, has the following observation :—" The country on the Ohio is every where pleasant, with large level spots of rich land, and remarkably healthy. One general remark of this nature will serve for the whole tract of the globe comprehended between the western skirts of the Allegany mountains ; thence running south-westwardly to the distance of 500 miles to the Ohio falls ; then crossing them

northerly to the head of the rivers that empty themselves into the Ohio; thence east along the ridge that separates the lakes and Ohio streams, to French Creek. This country may, from a proper knowledge, be affirmed to be the most healthy, the most pleasant, the most commodious, and most fertile spot of earth, known to the European people."

Mr. Ellicott, who, with the observing eye of an accurate geographer, passed deliberately down the Ohio river, says—"The bottom and sides of the river are stony from Pittsburgh down to the low country, which is generally supposed to be about eight hundred miles. The strata of stone are horizontally disposed, and principally consist of either free-stone or lime-stone. This horizontal disposition of the strata of stone, is observable through a very large extent of the United States. I have traced it from Oswego, up lakes Ontario and Erie, with all the waters falling into them, and through all the western parts of Pennsylvania, and down the Ohio, wherever hills or mountains are to be seen.

"The flat, or bottom lands on the Ohio, are not surpassed by any in the United States for fertility; but in many places they are small, and inconsiderable; being limited by hills or mountains, on one side and the river on the other. A large proportion of the hills, and mountains are unfit for agricultural purposes, being either too steep, or faced with rocks. The hills and mountains on the east side of the river generally increase in magnitude, till they unite with the great ridge, commonly called the Allegany: but on the west side they decrease till the country becomes almost a dead level.

"The country produces all the immediate necessaries of life in abundance, and far beyond the present consumption of the inhabitants; the residue, with many other articles, such as hemp, cordage, hard-ware, some glass, whiskey, apples, cider and salted provisions, are carried down the river to New-Orleans, where they find a ready market. Mines of pit coal (lithanthrax) are not only abundant, but inexhaustible, from Pittsburgh many miles down the river. The inhabitants in no other part of the United States are so much interested in establishing manufactures as in this. They possess the raw materials, and can export their produce with ease, but their imports are attended with difficulty, risk and expense."

"The lands on the various streams above mentioned, which fall into the Ohio, are now more accurately known, and may be described with confidence and precision. They are interspersed with all the variety of soil which conduces to pleasantness of situation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of agricultural and manufacturing people. Large level bottoms, or natural meadows, from 20 to 50 miles in circuit, are every where found bordering the rivers and variegating the country in the interior parts. These afford as rich a soil as can be imagined, and may be reduced to proper cultivation with very little labour. It is said, that in many of these bottoms, a man may clear an acre a day, fit for planting with Indian corn; there being no under wood; and the trees, growing very high and large, but not thick together, need nothing but girdling.

"The prevailing growth of timber and the more useful trees are, maple or sugar tree, sycamore,* black and white mulberry, black and white walnut, butternut, chesnut; white, black, Spanish, and chesnut oaks, hickory, cherry, buck-wood or horse-chesnut, honey locust, elm, cucumber tree, lynn tree, gum tree, iron wood, ash, aspin, sassafras, crab apple tree, paupaw or custard apple, a variety of plum trees, nine bark spice, and leather wood bushes. General Parsons measured a black walnut tree, near the Muskingum, whose circumference at five feet from the ground was 22 feet. White and black oak, and chesnut, with most of the above mentioned timbers, grow large and plenty upon the high grounds. Both the high and low lands produce vast quantities of natural grapes of various kinds, of which the settlers universally might make a sufficiency for their own consumption of rich red wine. It is asserted in the old settlement of St. Vincent, where they have had opportunity to try it, that age will render this wine preferable to most of the European wines. Cotton is said to be the natural production of this country, and to grow in great perfection. Hops grow spontaneously.

"The sugar maple is the most valuable tree, for an inland country. Any number of inhabitants may be forever supplied with a sufficiency of sugar, by preserving a few trees for the use of each family. A tree will yield on an average about four pounds of sugar a year, and the labour is very trifling. The sap is extracted in the months of February and March, and granulated, by the simple operation of boiling, to a sugar equal in flavour and whiteness to the best Muscovado.

"Springs of excellent water abound in every part of this territory; and small and large streams for mills and other purposes, are interspersed." But there is but little fall in the mill streams, and they fail in dry seasons. Good mill seats are scarce.

"Very little waste land is to be found in any part of this tract of country. There are no swamps but such as may be readily drained and made into arable and meadow land; and though the hills are frequent, they are gentle and swelling, no where high or incapable of tillage. They are of a deep, rich soil, covered with a heavy growth of timber, and well adapted to the production of wheat, rye, indigo, tobacco, &c.

"The communications between this country and the sea will be principally in the four following directions.

"1. The route through the Scioto and Muskingum to Lake Erie and so to the river Hudson.

"2. The passage up the Ohio and Monongahela to the portage which leads to the navigable waters of the Patowmack. This portage is thirty miles, and will probably be rendered much less by the execution of the plans now on foot for opening the navigation of those waters.

"3. The Great Kanhaway, which falls into the Ohio from the Virginia shore, between the Hockhocking and the Scioto, opens an extensive navigation from the south-east, and leaves but 18 miles

* One of these, near Marietta, measures 60 feet in circumference and being hollow will contain 18 or 20 men. [*Harris.*]

portage from the navigable waters of James River, in Virginia. This communication, for the country between Muskingum and Scioto, will probably be more used than any other, for the exportation of manufactures, and other light and valuable articles; and especially, for the importation of foreign commodities, which may be brought from the Chesapeak to the Ohio, much cheaper than they are now carried from Philadelphia to Carlisle, and the other thick settled back counties in Pennsylvania.

"4. But the current down the Ohio and Missisippi, for heavy articles that suit the Florida and West-India market, such as corn, flour, beef, lumber, &c. will be more frequently loaded than any streams on earth. The distance from the Scioto to the Missisippi is 800 hundred miles; from thence to the sea is 900. This whole course is easily run in 15 days; and the passage up those rivers is not so difficult as has been usually represented. It is found, by late experiments, that sails are used to great advantage against the current of the Ohio; and it is worthy of observation, that in all probability, steam boats will be found to do infinite service in all our extensive river navigation."*

The exports from this country consist of "flour, corn, hemp, flax, cotton, beef, pork, smoked hams, of venison, whiskey, peach-brandy, oak staves, lumber, &c. raw and tanned hides and peltry." [*Harris.*]

The building of ships to carry the produce of this country to market, is a business lately commenced, and is increasing with the growth of this country. In 1802, and since, a number of vessels of from 115 to 204 tons, have been built at Marietta, and descended the river to New Orleans, and thence proceeded to the West-Indies. This promises in future to be an increasing and lucrative branch of business in this thriving country.

The amount of the value of exports is not ascertained. From the whole of the Territory of the United States, (embracing as I suppose the state of Ohio, and Indiana Territory, and exclusive of Fort Massack, Detroit, and Michilimakinack) there were exported in 1804, to the value of 1,959,423 dollars. [*Report of Secretary of the Treasury.*]

Animals, &c.] No country was originally better stocked with wild game of every kind than this. Innumerable herds of deer and wild cattle were sheltered in the groves, and fed in the extensive bottoms that here abound; an unquestionable proof of the great fertility of the soil. Turkies, geese, ducks, swans, teal, pheasants, partridges, &c. were a few years since, from observation, believed to be in greater plenty here, than the tame poultry are in any part of the old settlements in America. But on the approach of settlers, buffaloes disappear; geese and swans are now seldom killed; ducks are not plenty. Bears, deer and turkies are now the principal game. At the falls of Ohio, geese and swans still are plenty.

"The rivers are well stored with fish of various kinds, and many of them of an excellent quality. They are generally large, though of different sizes: the cat fish, which is the largest, and of a delicious flavour, weighs from 6 to 90 and even 100 pounds." Twenty miles

* Anonymous pamphlet, published about the year 1787.

from the mouth of the Muskingum has been found in the river a tooth, 4 inches wide, and 11 in length. A remarkably large bone has been found near the place.

Antiquities and Curiosities.] The number of old forts, found in this western country are the admiration of the curious, and a matter of much speculation. They are mostly of an oblong form, situated on strong, well chosen ground, and contiguous to water. When, by whom, and for what purpose, these were thrown up, is uncertain. They are undoubtedly very ancient, as there is not the least visible difference in the age or size of the timber growing on or within these forts, and that which grows without; and the oldest natives have lost all tradition respecting them. Dr. Cutler has accurately examined the trees on the forts at Marietta, and thinks, from appearances, they are the second growth, and that the works must have been built upwards of 1000 years. They must have been the efforts of a people much more devoted to labour than the present race of Indians; and it is difficult to conceive how they could be constructed without the use of iron tools. At a convenient distance from these always stands a small mound of earth thrown up in the form of a pyramid, and seems in some measure proportioned to the size of its adjacent fortification. On examination, they have been found to contain a chalky substance, supposed to be bones, and of the human kind. Other works have been since discovered 90 miles from Marietta, on one of the western branches of the Muskingum extending near two miles, the ramparts of which are now in some places more than 18 feet in perpendicular height.*

Under this head we may mention the extensive meadows, or as the French call them, *Prairies*, which answer to what in the southern states, are called savannas. They are a rich plain, without trees, and covered with grass. Some of these, are 30 or 40 miles in extent. In passing them, as far as the eye can reach, there is not a tree to be seen; but there is plenty of deer, wild cattle, bears, and wolves, and innumerable flocks of turkies; these, with the green grass, form a rich and beautiful prospect. In clearing out a spring near some ancient ruins, a copper coin has been lately found on the bank of the little Miami river, not far from its entrance into the Ohio, at the depth of about 4 feet from the surface of the earth. From a *fac simile* it appears that the characters on the coin are the *Old Persian.*

University.] An act establishing a university passed the legislature of this state, Dec. 12th. 1801. It is named the "Ohio University," and is fixed at Athens, on the Hockhocking river, 40 miles by water from the Ohio, and is already endowed with 46,000 acres of land, which is thought to be superior in point of pleasantness and fertility to any in the state; 1,500 acres of the land are already (1804) cleared, leased, and inhabited by about 100 families. The corporation is to consist of the governour of the state for the time being, the president, and not more than fifteen, nor less than ten trustees. [*Harris.*]

* For a more full account of these curious remains of antiquity, the reader is referred to Mr. Harris's account of them, in the work already mentioned.

Road.] A road to accommodate travellers on horseback has been cut from Wheeling across the Ohio, in this state, and thence to opposite Limestone in Kentucky. The following are the stages:

From Wheeling to Wills Creek	53 miles.
Muskingum river	30
Hockhocking river	40
Chilicothe, on the western bank of Scioto	38
Paint Creek, a branch of Scioto	18
Brush Creek	30
Limestone Ferry	33
	242

Regular ferries are established on this road; but travellers are obliged to carry their own provisions. This road crosses the Muskingum 65 miles, and the Scioto 60 miles from its mouth; and the Hockhocking 13 miles above the falls, at a place where stood the *standing stone*, an old Delaware town, so called from a rock in its neighbourhood, said to be 300 feet high.

Government.] The legislative authority of this state is vested in a General Assembly consisting of a senate to be chosen biennially, and a house of representatives to be chosen annually, both by the people; the representatives to be proportioned by law from time to time, to the population. The senators are to be divided into two classes, by lot, the seats of the first class to be vacated at the expiration of one year; of the second at the expiration of the second year, so that one half are to be annually chosen. The house of representatives have the power of instituting impeachments, which are to be tried by the senate.

The supreme executive power is vested in a governour to be chosen biennially, by the people. He is eligible only 6 years in any term of 8 years.

The judiciary power is vested in a Supreme Court, in Courts of common pleas in each county, and justices of the peace. The judges of the supreme and county courts are to be appointed by a joint ballot of the two houses of assembly, to hold their offices for seven years.

"In all elections all white males, above the age of 21 years, having resided in the state one year next preceding the election, and who have paid or are charged with a state or county tax, shall enjoy the right of an elector," in the district where he actually resides at the time of the elections.

The salaries of the officers of government are fixed by the constitution till 1808, and till that period, Chilicothe is to be the seat of government. The constitution closes with a delaration of rights consisting of 28 articles.

History.] A brief history of this state will be found in Mr. Harris' work already mentioned. I only add, that the settlement of this country was checked, for several years by the unhappy Indian war, an amicable termination of which took place on the 3d of August, 1795, when a treaty was formed at Greenville, between major-general Anthony Wayne, on the part of the United States, and the Chiefs of the following tribes of Indians, viz. the Wyandots, Delawares, Shawa-

noes, Ottawas, Chippewas, Putawatimes, Miamis, Eelriver, Weeas, Kickapoos, Pian-Kashaws and Kaskaskias.

By the third article of this treaty, the Indians cede to the United States, for a valuable consideration, all lands lying eastward and southward of a line "beginning at the mouth of Cayahoga river, and running thence up the same to the portage between that and the Tuscarawas branch of the Muskingum; thence down that branch to the crossing place above Fort Lawrence; thence westerly to a fork of that branch of the great Miami river, running into the Ohio, where commences the portage between the Miami of the Ohio, and St. Mary's river, which is a branch of the Miami of the lake; thence a westerly course to Fort Recovery, which stands on a branch of the Wabash, then south-westerly in a direct line to the Ohio, so as to intersect that river opposite the mouth of Kentucky or Cattawa river." Sixteen tracts of land of six and twelve miles square, interspersed at convenient distances in the Indian country, were by the same treaty ceded to the United States, for the convenience of keeping up a friendly and beneficial intercourse between the parties. For the situation of these tracts, &c. see the map.

The United States on their part, "relinquish their claims to all other Indian lands northward of the river Ohio, eastward of the Mississippi, and westward and southward of the Great Lakes and the waters uniting them according to the boundary line agreed on by the United States and the king of Great-Britain, in the treaty of peace made between them in the year 1783. But from this relinquishment by the United States the following tracts of land are explicitly excepted. 1st The tract of 150,000 acres near the rapids of the Ohio river, which has been assigned to general Clark, for the use of himself and his warriors. 2d. The post of St. Vincennes on the river Wabash, and the lands adjacent; of which the Indian title has been extinguished. 3d. The land at all other places in possession of the French people and other white settlers among them, of which the Indian title has been extinguished, as mentioned in the third article; and 4th. The post of Fort Massack towards the mouth of the Ohio. To which several parcels of land so excepted, the said tribes relinquish all the title and claim which they or any of them have."

Goods to the value of 20,000 dollars were delivered the Indians at the time this treaty was made; and thenceforward every year, goods, to the amount of 9,500 dollars, at first cost in the United States, are to be delivered to the Indians at some convenient place northward of the Ohio.

A trade has been opened, since this treaty, by a law of Congress, with the forementioned tribes of Indians, on a liberal footing, which promises to give permanency to this treaty, and security to the frontier inhabitants.

From official papers communicated to Congress by the secretary of the treasury, it appears that there had been sold, Nov. 1, 1801, in behalf of the United States, in the districts of Steubenville, Marietta, Chilicothe and Cincinnati, 398,646½ acres, for 834,887 dollars 11 cents; of which 248,461 dollars 9 cents had been paid—586,426 dollars due. The expense of surveying, 3,974 dollars 27 cents to be deducted; forfeitures 2,147 dollars 91 cents.

On the 1st of Nov. 1801, there remained unsold in

	Whole number of acres.	Of which remained unsold Nov. 1, 1801.
Steubenville district	1,861,124¾	1,550,000
Marietta do.	1,303,841¼	1,270,000
Chilicothe do.	2,090,402¾	1,860,100
Military Tract	2,539,110	1,479,990
Ohio Reservation		80,000
East of Great Miami		1,020,000
West of Great Miami		2,000,000
	Total acres,	9,260,090

The lands, which are rising in value as the country populates, it is easy to calculate, will greatly aid in extinguishing the national debt.

INDIANA TERRITORY.

THE portion of the United States thus named lately formed a part of the N. W. Territory, so called, and was erected into a temporary government, invested with the usual powers, by act of Congress, January, 1801.

Boundaries.] This territory is bounded east by the Great Miami river; south by the Ohio; west by the Missisippi; north by the Illinois river.

Divisions and Population.] It is divided into three counties, viz.

Counties.	No. Inhabitants.	Chief Towns.	No. Inhabitants.
Knox	2517	St. Vincennes	1500
Randolph	1103	Kaskaskias	467
St. Clair	1255	Kahokia	719
	4873		

Soil and Productions.] This territory has a fine soil, adapted to corn, wheat, rye, oats, cotton, hemp, tobacco and other articles mentioned in the account of the state of Ohio.

Rivers.] Several fine rivers water this territory, as the Wabash, au Vase, Kaskaskias, and their branches.

The Wabash is a beautiful river, with high and fertile banks. It empties into the Ohio, by a mouth 270 yards wide, 1,020 miles below Fort Pitt. In the spring, summer and autumn, it is passable with batteaux drawing three feet water, 412 miles, to Ouiatanon, a small French settlement, on the west side of the river; and for large canoes 197 miles further, to the Miami carrying place, nine miles from Miami village. This village stands on Miami river, which empties into

the south-west part of Lake Erie. The communication between Detroit and the Illinois and Ohio countries, is up Miami river to Miami village, thence, by land, nine miles, when the rivers are high, and from 18 to 30 when they are low, through a level country to the Wabash, and through the various branches of the Wabash to the places of destination.

A silver mine has been discovered about 28 miles above Ouiatanon, on the northern side of the Wabash. Salt springs, lime, freestone, blue, yellow and white clay are found in plenty upon this river. No iron ore has been found in this tract. On Big river, and all the streams which run into the Ohio, is found a plenty of sea-coal.

The rivers au Vase and Kaskaskias empty into the Missippi from the north-east; the former is navigable for boats 60, and the latter about 130 miles. They both run through a rich country, which has extensive meadows.

Between the Kaskaskias and Illinois* rivers, which are eighty-four miles apart, is an extensive tract of level rich land, which terminates in a high ridge, about 15 miles before you reach the Illinois river. In this delightful vale are a number of French villages.

One hundred and seventy-six miles above the Ohio, the Illinois empties into the Missisippi from the north-east by a mouth about 400 yards wide. The river is bordered by fine meadows, which in some places extend as far as the eye can reach; and furnishes a communication with Lake Michigan, by the Chicago river, between which and the Illinois are two portages, the longest of which does not exceed four miles. It receives a number of rivers which are from 20 to 100 yards wide, and navigable for boats from 15 to 180 miles. On the north-western side of this river is a coal mine, which extends for half a mile along the middle of the bank of the river, and about the same distance below the coal mine are two salt ponds, 100 yards in circumference, and several feet in depth. The water is stagnant, and of a yellowish colour; but the French and natives make good salt from it. The soil of the Illinois country is, in general, of a superior quality: Its natural growth consists of oak, hickory, cedar, mulberry, &c. hops, dying drugs, medicinal plants of several kinds, and excellent wild grapes. In the year 1769, the French settlers made 110 hogsheads of strong wine from these grapes. There are many other rivers of equal size and importance with those we have been describing, which are not sufficiently known for accurate description.

Chief Towns and Exports.] Vincennes is the capital of this territory, and the seat of government; it stands on the bank of the Wabash, 150 miles from its mouth, in lat. 33° N. Its situation is delightful, being surrounded by a prairie of 4 miles in length and one in breadth, most of which is cultivated by the inhabitants, the remainder is a handsome meadow formed by nature, producing good grass. The soil here is inferior to none in the United States, yielding corn, rice, wheat, tobacco, hemp, hops, grapes, &c. The Wabash is navigable the most of the year as far as this place, and about 20 miles below the town is a ripple, where mills may be built, so that the farmer may

* Illinois signifies, *a man of full age, in the vigour of his years.* Illinois river, is *the river of men.* [*Hinnipen.*]

have his wheat manufactured on his way to New-Orleans; which is a good market for all kinds of produce. Commerce centres here; the merchants bring their goods from Canada, down the Wabash, from Orleans up the Missisippi, and from the eastern states down the Ohio and up the Wabash. It has 714 inhabitants. It is a post town, 743 miles from Washington. The fort stands on the E. side of Wabash river. It was erected in the the year 1787, in order to repel the incursions of the Wabash Indians, and to secure the western lands from intruding settlers. It has 4 small brass cannon, and is garrisoned by a major and 2 companies. The town of Vincents contained, in 1792, about 1500 souls, principally of French extraction. It is 300 miles south-west of Fort Recovery.

Kaskaskias stands on the S.W. bank of the river of the same name, a water of the Missisippi, in the Indiana Terrirory, opposite Old Fort, and 12 miles from the mouth of the river, but not half that distance from the Missisippi. It contains about 100 houses, many of them well built; several of stone with gardens, and large lots adjoining. It now contains 467 inhabitants; 47 are slaves. The former have large stocks of black cattle, swine, &c.

Kahokia is 65 miles north of Kaskaskias, on the southern side of Small river, 1 mile from its mouth. About the year 1774, this village contained 50 houses, some of them well built, and 300 inhabitants, with 80 negroes, and large stocks of cattle, swine &c. It has now 719 inhabitants.

Fort Massack, was built by the French on the west bank of the Ohio, near its mouth, inl at. 37° 15′, 11 miles below the mouth of Tennessee river. It stands on a high stony bank. The stones appear to be composed of ferruginous matter and gravel. A considerable quantity of land both above and below the fort, is annually inundated. A number of troops are stationed here. [*Ellicott.*]

This place is a port of entry, and from it was exported, foreign articles in the 4th quarter of 1803, to the value of 17,320 dollars.

Curiosities.] On the north-west bank of the mouth of the Wabash, N. lat. 37° 36′, is a remarkable cave, called the *Great Cave*, which is one of the greatest natural curiosities on the Ohio. The entrance is spacious, and remarkably uniform; the dome is elliptical, and the uniformity continues to its termination in the hill. [*Ellicott.*]

MICHIGAN TERRITORY.

THIS district, in 1796, was named Wayne county, and has lately been erected into a separate territorial government, organized with the usual officers and powers. It embraces all that part of the United States, which lies north of the state of Ohio, having lake Michigan on the west and lake Huron on the north-east It has no considerable rivers. By the census of 1800 it contained 3,206 inhabitants.

Detroit the best fortress in all this part of the country, is the capital of this territory. It is situated on the western bank of the strait St.

Clair, or Detroit river, between lake Erie and lake St. Clair; 18 miles north of the west end of the former, and nine miles below the latter. Fort Detroit is of an oblong figure, built with stockades, and advantageously situated, with one entire side commanding the river. It is near a mile in circumference, and encloses about 300 houses and a Roman Catholick church; built in a regular manner, with parallel streets crossing each other at right angles. Its situation is delightful, and in the centre of a pleasant and fruitful country. For eight miles below and the same distance above Fort Detroit, on both sides of the river, the country is divided into regular and well cultivated plantations; and from the contiguity of the farmers' houses to each other, they appear as two long extended villages. The inhabitants, who were mostly French, were about 2000 in number in 1778, 500 of whom were as good marksmen as the Indians themselves, and as well accustomed to the woods. They raise large stocks of black cattle, and great quantities of corn, which they grind by windmills, and manufacture into excellent flour. The chief trade of Detroit consists in a barter of coarse European goods with the natives for furs, deer skins, tallow, &c. The exports from this place for the year 1804, amounted to 38,028 dollars. By the treaty of Greenville, Aug. 3, 1795, the Indians have ceded to the United States the post of Detroit, and all the land to the north, the west and the south of it, of which the Indian title has been extinguished by gifts or grants to the French or English governments, and so much more land is to be annexed to Detroit as shall be comprehended between Rosine river on the south; lake St. Clair on the north; and a line, the general course whereof shall be six miles from the west end of lake Erie and Detroit river. The fort, &c. was delivered up by the British in July, 1796, according to treaty. It lies 18 miles north of lake Erie, 724 N. W. by W. from Philadelphia. N. lat. 42° 40′, W. lon. 82° 56′.

There is a large tract of country (formerly included in the territory N. W. of the Ohio) lying north of the Illinois, and west of lake Michigan, and extending to the north-west point of the United States, which is inhabited by various tribes of Indians, and which is little known.

Michilimakinack. This place was called by the Canadians, *La Grose Isle.* It is an island, fort and village, on the south-west side of the straits of the same name. The small isle on which the village, and the fort commanding the strait, stand, is W. N. W. of White Wood Island, in Lake Huron. In addition to the lands round this post to which the Indian title had been extinguished by the French and British governments, the Indians have ceded by the treaty of Greenville, a tract of land on the main, to the north of the island on which the post of Michilimakinack stands, to measure 6 miles on lakes Huron, and Michigan, and to extend 3 miles back from the water of the lake or strait, and also De Bois Blanc or White Wood Island. This last was the voluntary gift of the Chippewa nation. The island of Michilimakinack is very barren, but, as it is the grand rendezvous of the Indian traders, a considerable trade is carried on; and its very advantageous situation seems to ensure that it will be, at some future period, a place of great commercial importance. It is within the

line of the United States, and was lately delivered up by the British. The exports from this place in the year 1804, consisting chiefly of furs, amounted to 238,936 dollars. There are 251 inhabitants here. It is about 200 miles N. N. W. from Detroit, and 974 N. W. of Philadelphia. N. lat. 45° 48′ 34″, W. long. 84° 30′.

SOUTHERN STATES.

THE Third, and much the largest Grand Division of the United States, comprehends

MARYLAND,	TENNESSEE,
VIRGINIA,	SOUTH-CAROLINA,
KENTUCKY,	GEORGIA, and
NORTH-CAROLINA,	MISSISIPPI TERRITORY.

This extensive division is bounded north by Pennsylvania and the Ohio river; west by the Missisippi; south by East and West-Florida; east by the Atlantick Ocean and the Delaware state. It is intersected in a north-east and south-west direction by the range of Allegany mountains, which give rise to many noble rivers, which fall either into the Atlantick on the east, or the Missisippi on the west. From the sea-coast, 60, 80, and in some parts 100 miles back towards the mountains, the country, generally speaking, is nearly a dead level, and a very large proportion of it is covered, in its natural state, with pitch pines. In the neighbourhood of stagnant waters which abound in this level country, the inhabitants are sickly. In the back, hilly and mountainous country, they are as healthy as in any part of America.

This district of the Union contained in 1790, upwards of 1,900,000 inhabitants, of whom 648,439 were slaves, which was *thirteen fourteenths* of the whole number of slaves in the United States. In 1800, there were, according to the census, 2,556,846 inhabitants in this district, of which 850,200 were slaves. The influence of slavery has produced a very distinguishing feature in the general character of the inhabitants, which though now discernible to their disadvantage, has been softened and meliorated by the benign effects of the revolution, and the progress of liberty and humanity.

The following may be considered as the principal productions of this division: tobacco, rice, cotton, indigo, wheat, corn, tar, pitch, turpentine and lumber.

In this district is fixed the permanent seat for the general government.

MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 134	between	37° 56′ and 39° 44′ N. lat.	14,000
Breadth 110		0° and 4° 30′ W. lon.	one fourth of which is water.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by Pennsylvania; east by Delaware state and the Atlantick Ocean; south and west by Virginia.

Civil Divisions and Population.] This state is divided into 19 counties, 11 of which are on the *Western*, and eight on the *Eastern* shore of Chesapeak Bay.

	Counties.	No. Inhab. in 1790.	No. Inhab. in 1800.	No. Slaves in 1790.	No. Slaves in 1800.	Chief Towns.
Western Shore.	Hartford	14,976	17,626	3,417	4,264	Bellair
	Baltimore	38,937	59,030	7,132	9,673	Baltimore
	Ann-Arundel	22,598	22,623	10,130	9,760	Annapolis
	Frederick	30,791	31,423	3,641	4,572	Fredericktown
	Allegany	4,809	6,303	258	499	Cumberland
	Washington	15,822	18,850	1,286	2,200	Elizabethtown
	Montgomery	18,003	15,058	6,030	6,288	
	PrinceGeorge	21,344	21,185	11,176	12,191	Marlborough
	Calvert	8,652	8,297	4,305	4,101	St. Leonard
	Charles	20,613	19,172	10,085	9,558	Port Tobacco
	St. Mary's	15,544	13,699	6,985	6,399	Leonardstown
Eastern Shore.	Cecil	13,625	9,018	3,407	2,103	Elkton
	Kent	12,836	11,771	5,433	4,474	Chester
	Queen Ann	15,463	14,857	6,674	6,517	Centreville
	Caroline	9,506	9,226	257	1,865	Denton
	Talbot	13,084	13,436	4,777	4,775	Easton
	Somerset	15,610	17,358	7,070	7,432	Princess Ann
	Dorchester	15,875	12,346	5,337	4,566	Cambridge
	Worcester	11,640	16,370	3,836	4,398	Snow Hill
Columbia Dist.			8,144		2,072	Washington
	Total	319,728	349,692	103,036	107,707	

Each of the counties sends four representatives to the house of delegates, besides which the city of Annapolis and town of Baltimore send each two.

Bays and Rivers.] Chesapeak Bay, as we have already hinted, divides this state into the eastern and western divisions. This bay, which is the largest in the United States, was particularly described in the general account of the United States. It affords many good fisheries, and is remarkable for the excellency of its crabs, and also for a particular species of wild duck, called *canvas back*. In a commercial view, it is of immense advantage to the state. It receives a

number of large rivers. From the eastern shore in Maryland, among other smaller ones, it receives Pokomoke, Nanticoke, Choptank, Chester and Elk rivers. From the north, the rapid Susquehannah; and from the west, Patapsco, Severn, Patuxent, and Patowmack, half of which is in Maryland and half in Virginia. Except the Susquehannah and Patowmack, these are small rivers. Patapsco river is but about 30 or 40 yards wide at the ferry, just before it empties into the bason upon which Baltimore stands. Its source is in York county in Pennsylvania. Its course is southwardly, till it reaches Elkridge landing, about eight miles westward of Baltimore; it then turns eastward, in a broad bay-like stream, by Baltimore, which it leaves on the north and passes into the Chesapeak. The entrance into Baltimore harbour, about a mile below Fell's Point is hardly pistol shot across, and of course may be easily defended against naval force.

The Monocasy is a gentle stream, which enters the Patowmack 14 miles from Fredericktown. In general it is fordable, yet with small expense, it is said, might be rendered navigable for forty miles.

Severn is a short, inconsiderable river, passing by Annapolis which it leaves to the south, emptying, by a broad mouth, into the Chesapeak.

Patuxent is a larger river than the Patapsco. It rises in Ann-Arundel county, and runs southeastwardly and then east into the bay, 15 or 20 miles north of the mouth of the Patowmack. There are several small rivers, such as Wicocomico, Eastern Branch, Monocasy and Conegocheague, which empty into Patowmack river from the Maryland side.

Face of the Country, Climate, Soil and Productions } East of the blue ridge of mountains, which stretches across the western part of this state, the land like that in all the southern states, is generally level and free of stones; and appears to have been made much in the same way: of course the soil must be similar, and the natural growth not remarkably different.

The ground is uniformly level and low in most of the counties on the eastern shore, and consequently covered in many places with stagnant water except where it is intersected by numerous creeks. Here also are large tracts of marsh, which, during the day load the atmosphere with vapour, that falls in dew, in the close of the summer and fall seasons, which are sickly. The spring and summer are most healthy.

The soil of the good land in Maryland is of such a nature and quality as to produce from 12 to 16 bushels of wheat, or from 20 to 30 bushels of Indian corn per acre. Ten bushels of wheat, and 15 bushels of corn per acre are the annual average crops in the state at large.

Since the Hessian fly has found its way into Maryland, the crops of wheat have been very much diminished, the ravages of this insect sometimes destroy whole fields. The farmers however are beginning to resist it by means of constant manuring and by late seeding.

Wheat and tobacco are the staple commodities. Tobacco is generally cultivated in sets, by negroes in the following manner: the

seed is sown in beds of fine mould, and transplanted the beginning of May. The plants are set at the distance of three or four feet from each other, and are hilled and kept continually free of weeds. When as many leaves have shot out as the soil will nourish to advantage, the top of the plant is broken off, which prevents its growing higher. It is carefully kept clear of worms, and the suckers, which put up between the leaves, are taken off at proper times, till the plant arrives at perfection, which is in August. When the leaves turn of a brownish colour, and begin to be spotted, the plant is cut down and hung up to dry, after having sweat in heaps one night. When it can be handled without crumbling, which is always in moist weather, the leaves are stripped from the stalk, and tied in bundles, and packed for exportation in hogsheads containing 8 or 900 pounds. No suckers nor ground leaves are allowed to be merchantable. An industrious person may manage 6,000 plants of tobacco, (which yield 1,000lb.) and four acres of Indian corn. About 6000 plants yield 1000 pounds of tobacco. Some cotton is raised in this state, of an inferior quality, and manfactured in families. In the interior country, on the uplands, considerable quantities of hemp and flax are raised. As long ago as 1751, in the month of October, no less than 60 waggons, loaded with flax-seed came down to Baltimore from the back country.

Two articles are said to be peculiar to Maryland, viz. the genuine *white* wheat, which grows in Kent, Queen Ann's and Talbot counties, on the eastern shore, and which degenerates in other places; and the bright *kite's foot* tobacco, which is procdued at Elkridge, on the Patuxent, on the western shore.

Among other kinds of timber is the oak, of several kinds, which is of a straight grain and easily rives into staves, for exportation. The black walnut is in demand for cabinets, tables, and other furniture. The apples of this state are large, but mealy; their peaches plenty and good. From these the inhabitants distil cider brandy and peach brandy.

The forests abound with nuts of various kinds, which are collectively called *mast*. On this mast, vast numbers of swine are fed, which run wild in the woods. These swine, when fatted, are caught, killed, barrelled and exported in great quantities. This traffick formerly was carried on to a very considerable extent. Douglas says, that "in the year 1733, which was a good masting year, one gentleman, a planter and merchant, in Virginia, salted up 3,000 barrels of pork."

Population and Character.] The population of this state is exhibited in the foregoing table. The inhabitants, except in the populous towns, live on their plantations, often several miles distant from each other. To an inhabitant of the middle, and especially of the eastern states, which are thickly populated, they appear to live very retired and unsocial lives. It is said, however, that there is no class of men in the world who associate more with each other than the farmers of Maryland. Their manners are as polished as those of the country gentlemen in England; their minds are well informed, and their intercourse free and social; their sons generally receive a liberal education, and many of them engage in the study of the law, without any intention of pursuing it as a profession.

That pride which grows on slavery, and is habitual to those, who, from their infancy are taught to believe and to feel their superiority, is a visible characteristick of the inhabitants of Maryland. But with this characteristick we must not fail to connect that of hospitality to strangers, which is equally universal and obvious. Many of the women possess all the amiable, and many of the elegant accomplishments of their sex.

The inhabitants are made up of various nations of many different religious sentiments; few general observations, therefore, of a characteristical kind will apply. They owe little money as a state, and are willing and able to discharge their debts. Their credit is very good; and although they have so great a proportion of slaves, yet a number of influential gentlemen have evinced their humanity and their disposition to abolish so disreputable a traffick, by forming themselves into a society for the abolition of negro slavery.

Chief Towns.] Annapolis (city) is the capital of Maryland, and one of the wealthiest towns of its size in America. It is situated at the mouth of Severn river, on a healthy spot, 30 miles south of Baltimore. It is a place of little note in the commercial world. The houses, about 320 in number, are generally large and elegant, indicative of great wealth. The number of inhabitants does not exceed 2000. The design of those who planned the city, was to have the whole in the form of a circle, with the streets like *radii*, beginning at the centre where the state-house stands; and thence diverging in every direction. The principal part of the buildings are arranged agreeably to this plan. The state-house is an elegant building, and commands an extensive view of the bay and eastern shore. It cost £30,000 currency. The other publick buildings are a college, a church for Episcopalians, and one for Methodists, a market-house and theatre. The harbour is on the east side of the town.

Baltimore has had the most rapid growth of any town on the continent, and is the third in commercial importance in the United States. It lies in lat. 39° 21′, on the north side of Patapsco river, around what is called the Bason, in which the water, at common tides, is about five or six feet deep. Baltimore is divided into the town and Fell's Point, by a creek, over which are two bridges; but the houses extend, in a sparse situation, from one to the other. At Fell's Point the water is deep enough for ships of burden; but only small vessels go up to the town. The situation of the town is low and was formerly unhealthy; but the increase of houses, and of course, of smoke, the tendency of which is to destroy or dispel damp and unwholesome vapours, and the improvements that have been made, particularly that of paving the streets, have rendered it tolerably healthy. The houses were numbered in 1787, and found to be 1955; about 1200 of which were in the town, and the rest at Fell's Point. The present number much exceeds this. The number of ware-houses and stores in 1787 was 164, and of churches nine, which belonged to German Calvinists and Lutherans, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Roman Catholicks, Baptists, Methodists, Quakers, Nicolites or New Quakers. The number of inhabitants in the town and precincts according to the census of 1790, was 26,514, of whom 2,843 were slaves.

Market-street is the principal street in the town, and runs nearly east and west, a mile in length, parallel with the water. This is crossed by several other streets leading from the water, a number of which, particularly Calvert, South, and Gay-streets, are well built. North and east of the town the land rises and affords a fine prospect of the town and bay. Belvidere, the seat of Col. Howard, exhibits a fine landscape. The town—the point—the shipping both in the bason and at Fell's Point—the bay as far as the eye can reach—rising ground on the right and left of the harbour—a grove of trees on the declivity on the right—a stream of water breaking over the rocks at the foot of the hill on the left, all conspire to complete the beauty and grandeur of the prospect.

There is a bank established in this town with a capital of 300,000 dollars, by the name of *The Maryland Bank*. There is, besides, a branch of the bank of the United States. A new bank was established by law in 1796, with a capital of 2,000,000 of dollars, called *The Bank of Baltimore*. A publick library has lately been instituted in this town.

Some judgment may be formed of the amazing trade of this place from the number of vessels which were observed to pass up to Baltimore in the year 1795, which were 109 ships, 162 brigs and snows, 350 schooners and sloops, 5464 bay craft.* A battery and barracks have been constructed and some guns mounted, for the defence of this town, in case of invasion.

Georgetown stands on the bank of the river Patowmack, within the district of Columbia, about 160 miles from its entrance into Chesapeak Bay. It is separated from the city of Washington by Rock Creek, and is 4 miles from the capitol. The ground on which it stands is very broken, being a cluster of little hills, which, though at present elevated considerably above the surface of the river, were probably at some former period overflowed, as, at the depth of 8 or 10 feet below the surface, marine shells have been found. Dr. Martin concludes an account of the climate and diseases of this town, in the following words:

"Upon the whole, Georgetown and its vicinity may be considered as a healthy part of America; and in any disputes about the propriety of the seat of the general government being fixed here, no objection can be urged against it on account of its diseases."

This town has increased rapidly since the establishment of the city of Washington, with which it is immediately connected by a continuation of the streets. A bank has lately been established here, called "*the Bank of Columbia*," its capital 1,000,000 of dollars: also a noble college for the accommodation of about 200 students, and endowed chiefly by Roman Catholicks of the several states; but education here is not limited by any particular sect. The building being found inadequate to the accommodation of the number of students, has lately been enlarged. A wooden bridge, of one arch of 128 feet

* The value of exports from this thriving town increased, from the year ending September 30, 1791, to that ending September 30, 1798, from 1,576,588 dollars, 32 cents, to upwards of 12,000,000 dollars. In the beginning of 1798 the shipping belonging to this port amounted to 59,837 tons.

chord was lately thrown over the Patowmack at the little fall near Georgetown, by Mr. Palmer, of Newburyport, Massachusetts.

Fredericktown is a fine flourishing inland town, of upwards of 300 houses, built principally of brick and stone, and mostly on one broad street. It is situated in a fertile country, about four miles south of Catokton mountain, and is a place of considerable trade. It has 7 places of worship, for Roman Catholicks, Episcopalians, German Lutherans and Calvinists, Presbyterians, Baptists and Methodists. Besides these are an alms-house, court-house, gaol, academy and two brick market-houses. In November, 1797, there were 449 dwelling-houses in this town, and 2806 inhabitants.

Elizabethtown, formerly called Hagarstown, is but little inferior to Fredericktown, and is situated in the beautiful and well cultivated valley of Conegocheague, and carries on a considerable trade with the western country.

Elkton is situated near the head of Chesapeak Bay, on a small river which bears the name of the town. It enjoys great advantages from the carrying trade between Baltimore and Philadelphia. The tide-waters extend to this town.

Mines and Manufactures.] Mines of iron ore, of a superior quality, abound in many parts of the state. Furnaces for running this ore into pigs and hollow ware, and forges to refine pig-iron into bars, are numerous, and worked to great extent and profit.

Two strata or beds of coal, one of which is said to be similar to Virginia coal, have lately been discovered and opened within a mile of the city of Baltimore. Rye whiskey is manufactured in great quantities in this state. From some single distilleries 12,000 gallons are produced in a year.

In Frederick county alone are 80 grist-mills, busily employed in grinding wheat. There are also two glass works, two iron works two furnaces; between two and four hundred stills, and two paper mills.

Trade.] The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore, with the other states, with the West-Indies, and with some parts of Europe. To these places they send annually about 30,000 hogsheads of tobacco, besides large quantities of wheat, flour, pig-iron, lumber and corn; beans, pork, and flax-seed in smaller quantities; and receive in return, clothing for themselves and negroes, and other dry goods, wines, spirits, sugar and other West-India commodities. The balance is generally in their favour.

The value of exports from this state in the year ending September 30, 1791, was 2,239,690 dollars 96 cents; 1792, 2,623,808 dolls. 33 cents; 1793, 3,665,055 dollars 50 cents; 1794, 5,686,190 dollars 50 cents; 1795, 5,811,379 dollars 55 cents; 1799, 16,299,609 dollars; 1804, 9,151,939. The internal revenues of Maryland, in 7 years ending 1798, amounted to 363,772 dollars. In 1798 a revenue of 35,350 dollars, arose from duties on domestick distilled spirits and stills.

Religion.] The Roman Catholicks were the first settlers in Maryland. Besides these, there are Protestant Episcopalians, English, Scotch, and Irish Presbyterians, German Calvinists, German Luther-

ans, Friends, Baptists, Methodists, Mennonists, Nicolites or New Quakers; who all enjoy liberty of conscience.

Seminaries of Learning, &c.] Washington academy, in Somerset county, was instituted by law in 1779. It was founded and is supported by voluntary subscriptions and private donations, and is authorized to receive gifts and legacies, and to hold 2,000 acres of land. A supplement to the law, passed in 1784, increased the number of trustees from 11 to 15

In 1782, a college was instituted at Chestertown, in Kent county, and was honoured with the name of Washington College, after President Washington. It is under the management of 24 visitors or governours, with power to supply vacancies, and hold estates whose yearly value shall not exceed 6,000l. current money. By a law enacted in 1787, a permanent fund was granted to this institution of 1,250l. a year, currency, out of the monies arising from marriage licenses, fines and forfeitures on the Eastern Shore. From the repeated attempts of the Legislature to take the annual fund from this college, it has in *some measure* lost its reputation, though it is provided with the most able tutors. In the year 1798 its enemies succeeded in withdrawing 500l. from the yearly grant formerly made.

St. John's College was instituted in 1784, to have also 24 trustees, with power to keep up the succession by supplying vacancies, and to receive an annual income of 9,000l. A permanent fund is assigned this college of 1,750l. a year, out of the monies arising from marriage licenses, ordinary licenses, fines and forfeitures on the Western Shore. This college is at Annapolis, where a building is now prepared for it. The college edifice is of brick, on the north side of the town, and has about 100 students, and flourishing. Very liberal subscriptions were obtained towards founding and carrying on these seminaries. The two colleges constitute one university by the name of "the University of Maryland," whereof the governour of the state, for the time being, is chancellor, and the principal of one of them vice-chancellor, either by seniority or by election, as may hereafter be provided for by rule or by law. The chancellor is empowered to call a meeting of the trustees, or a representation of seven of each, and two of the members of the faculty of each, (the principal being one) which meeting is styled "The Convocation of the University of Maryland," who are to frame the laws, preserve uniformity of manners and literature in the colleges, confer the higher degrees, determine appeals, &c.

The Roman Catholicks have also erected a college at Georgetown, already mentioned.

In 1785, the Methodists instituted a college at Abington, in Harford county, by the name of Cokesbury college, after Thomas Coke, and Francis Asbury, bishops of the Methodist Episcopal church. The college edifice was of brick, handsomely built, on a healthy spot, enjoying a fine air, and a very extensive prospect. This building was burned to the ground some years ago, and the society purchased a large and elegant building in Baltimore, where they had a flourishing seminary, but in the year 1797, this was likewise consumed by fire. Since that period they have made some ineffectual attempts to carry their original plan into operation, but it is believed that their funds have not proved adequate to the purpose.

There are a few other literary institutions, of inferior note in different parts of the state, and provision is made for free schools in most of the counties; though some are entirely neglected, and very few carried on with any success; so that a great proportion of the lower class of people, a few years ago, were ignorant. But the revolution, among other happy effects, has roused attention to education, which is fast spreading its salutary influences over this and the other southern states.

A few years since was estabilised in Baltimore a French college, which (in 1804) contained about 70 students.

Natural Curiosities.] There are several remarkable caves in the western part of this state, but particular and accurate descriptions of them have not been received.

Expenses of Government, and Taxes] The annual expenses of government are estimated at about 20,000l. currency. The revenue arises chiefly from taxes on real and personal property.

Constitution.] The legislature is composed of two distinct branches, a senate and house of delegates, and styled "The General Assembly of Maryland." The senators are elected in the following manner. On the first of September, every fifth year, the freemen choose two men in each county to be electors of the senate, and one elector for the city of Annapolis, and one for the town of Baltimore. These electors must have the qualifications necessary for county delegates. These electors meet at Annapolis, or such other place as shall be appointed for convening the legislature, on the third Monday in September, every fifth year, and elect by ballot fifteen senators out of their own body or from the people at large. Nine of these must be residents on the western shore, and six on the eastern; they must be more than twenty-five years of age; must have resided in the state more than three years next preceding the election, and have real and personal property above the value of a thousand pounds. The senate may originate any bills, except money bills, to which they can only give their assent or dissent. The senate choose their president by ballot. The house of delegates is composed of four members for each county, chosen annually the first Monday in October. The city of Annapolis and town of Baltimore send each two delegates. The qualifications of a delegate, are, full age, one year's residence in the county where he is chosen, and real and personal property above the value of five hundred pounds. Both houses choose their own officers, and judge of the election of their members. A majority of each is a quorum. The election of senators and delegates is *viva voce*, and sheriffs the returning officers, except in Baltimore town, where the commissioners superintend the elections and make returns. The stated session of the legislature is on the first Monday in November. The qualifications of a freeman are, full age, a freehold estate of fifty acres of land, and actual residence in the county where he offers to vote, property to the value of thirty pounds in any part of the state, and a years residence in the county where he offers to vote.

On the second Monday in November, annually, a governour is appointed by the joint ballot of both houses, taken in each house respectively, and deposited in a conference room; where the boxes are exam-

ined by a joint committee of both houses, and the number of votes severally reported. The governour cannot continue in office longer than three years successively, nor be re-elected until the expiration of four years after he has been out of office. The qualifications for the chief magistracy, are, twenty-five years of age, five years, residence in the state, next preceding the election, and real and personal estate above the value of five thousand pounds, one thousand of which must be freehold estate. On the second Tuesday of November, annually, the senators and delegates elect by joint ballot, five able and discreet men, above twenty-five years of age, residents in the state three years next preceding the election, and possessing a freehold of lands and tenements above the value of a thousand pounds, to be a Council for assisting the governour in the duties of his office. Senators, delegates and members of council, whilst such, can hold no other office of profit, nor receive the profits of any office exercised by another. The governour with the advice of his council, appoints the chancellor, all judges and justices, the attorney-general, naval and militia officers, registers of the land office, surveyors, and all other civil officers, except constables, assessors and overseers of the roads. A court of appeals is established for the final determination of all causes, which may be brought from the general court* of admiralty, or of chancery.

This constitution was established by a convention of delegates, at Annapolis, August 14, 1776.

History.] Maryland was granted by king Charles I. to George Calvert,† baron of Baltimore, in Ireland, June 20, 1632. It was called Maryland in honour of the queen and was the first colony which was erected into a province of the English empire, and governed by laws enacted in a provincial legislature.

Lord Baltimore was a Roman Catholick, and was induced to undertake this settlement in America, from the hope of enjoying liberty of conscience, for himself and such of his friends as might prefer an easy banishment from England, embittered as they were by the sharpness of the laws, and the popular odium which hung over them. The court at that time, was very little inclined to treat the

* In some of the eastern states the legislature is called the *General Court.* In some of the southern, the *General Court* is the *Supreme Judicial Court.*

† George Calvert, lord Baltimore, the founder of Maryland, born in 1582, was educated at Oxford university, was knighted in 1617, by James I. and two years after was appointed one of the principal secretaries of state, which office he discharged with great industry and fidelity, and was rewarded by the king with a pension of a thousand pounds a year. Having enjoyed this office about five years he resigned it in 1624, freely owning to his majesty, that he was become a Roman Catholick. This honest confession so affected the king, that he continued him privy counsellor during his reign, and in 1625, created him (by the name of Sir George Calvert, of Danbywiske in Yorkshire, knight) baron of Baltimore, in the county of Longford, in Ireland. While he was secretary, he obtained a patent of the Province of Avalon in Newfoundland, where he built a house, and spent 25,000l. in advancing this new plantation; but finding it exposed to the French, was obliged at last to abandon it.

Upon this he came over to Virginia, and having taken a view of the country returned to England, and obtained from Charles I. who was his friend, a patent,* to him and his heirs, for Maryland. He died in London, April 15, 1642.

* See a copy of this patent in Hazard's Historical Collections, page 327.

Roman Catholicks in a harsh manner; neither had they any reason to do it; but the laws were of a rigorous complexion, and however the court might be inclined to relax them, they could not in policy do it but with great reserve.

The first emigration, consisting of about 200 gentlemen of considerable fortune and rank, with their adherents, chiefly Roman Catholicks sailed from England in November, 1632; and after a prosperous voyage, landed in Maryland, near the mouth of Patowmack river, the beginning of the next year. Calvert, their leader, purchased the rights of the aborigines, for a consideration which seems to have been satisfactory; and, with their free consent, in the following March, he took possession of their town, which he called St. Mary's. Prudence, as well as justice, dictated the continuation of this salutary policy with regard to the Indians; and having carefully cultivated their friendship, he lived with them on terms of perfect amity, till it was interrupted by the interested intrigues of one William Cleyborne.

The providing of food and habitations necessarily engrossed much of the attention of the first settlers. They lived for some time, rather under the domestick regimen of a family, than according to the diffusive regulations of a provincial establishment. The Indian women taught the emigrants how to make bread of their corn; their men went out to hunt and fish with the English; they assisted them in the chase, and sold them the game they took for themselves, for a trifling consideration; so that the new settlers had a sort of town already built, ground ready cleared for their cultivation, and no enemy to harass them. They had also prudently commenced their settlement at that season when the operations of agriculture naturally begin. Food was therefore easily provided for those, whom they expected to follow them from England.

Lord Baltimore laid the foundation of this province, on the broad basis of security to property, and liberty in religion; granting, in absolute fee, 50 acres of land to every emigrant; establishing Christianity, agreeably to the old common law, without allowing pre-eminence to any particular sect. The wisdom of his choice and measures soon converted a dreary wilderness into a prosperous colony. The transportation of people, and necessary stores and provisions, during the first two years, cost lord Baltimore upwards of £40,000. The freemen of the province, even during the youthful state of the colony, granted him a subsidy of 15 pounds of tobacco on every poll, "as a testimony of their gratitude for his great charge and solicitude in maintaining the government, in protecting their inhabitants in their rights, and for reimbursing his vast charge." This donation does equal honour to both; as it shows that the one had merited, and that the others possessed gratitude.

The first assembly, of which any record remains, composed probably of the whole freemen of the province, because their numbers were few, convened in February, 1634-5. Little of their proceedings are now known. It is certain, however, that among other wholesome laws, it was then enacted, "that offenders in all murders and felonies shall suffer the same pains and forfeitures, as for the same crimes in England."

As emigrants arrived and extended themselves at a greater distance from St. Mary's, the metropolis, legislative regulations became more necessary. With a view chiefly to procure the assent of the freemen to a body of laws which the proprietary had transmitted, Calvert, the governour, called a new assembly, in January 1637-8. But rejecting these with a becoming spirit, they prepared a collection of regulations, which demonstrated equally their good sense and the state of their affairs. The province was divided into baronies and manors, the privileges of which were carefully regulated.

A third assembly was held at St. John's, in February, 1638-9, at which time a considerable change took place. While the fewness of their numbers continued, the whole body of freemen seem to have consented, in person, to every law. But now an act passed, "for establishing the house of assembly." It enacted that those who should be elected, pursuant to writs issued, should be called *burgesses*, and should supply the place of the freemen, who chose them in the same manner, and to the same purpose as the representatives, in the parliament of England—that the gentlemen summoned by the special writ of the proprietary, and those freemen who should not have voted at any of the elections, together with the governour and secretary, should be called, "the house of assembly." That all acts assented to by that body, should be deemed of the same force, as if the proprietary and freemen had been personally present. The legislative power being thus erected, the assembly passed a code of laws, till a complete system of jurisprudence should be established. "Holy church," said the good Catholicks, "shall have all her rights and liberties." All inhabitants were required to take the oath of allegiance to his majesty; the prerogatives of the proprietary were recognized; and it was declared, that the colonists should enjoy their liberties, according to the great charter of England. The acts of assembly of Maryland demonstrate that none of the English provincials better understood the nature of their rights, or were more ready to acknowledge their duties, than were the people of that province.

Slavery seems to have rooted in Maryland with its first inhabitants, as an act of this assembly describes "the people" to consist of all Christian inhabitants, "slaves only excepted."

In the beginning of the parliament, which assembled in 1640, an attempt was made to establish once more over Virginia the government of the ancient corporation, and thereby to annul the charter of Maryland. But owing partly to the vigorous opposition of the assembly of that ancient dominion, which had now learned, from experience, that more real liberty was enjoyed under any form of government, than beneath the rule of a commercial company, but more to the injustice and difficulty of the measure, that project was dropped; and thus, what commenced in wickedness, ended in disappointment.

Never did a people enjoy more real happiness, or were more grateful for it, than the inhabitants of Maryland under Cecilius, the excellent founder of that province. The spirit which the emigrants displayed on all occasions, as well as their legislative talents, evince that they understood their interest, and pursued it; that while they cher-

ished the just prerogative of the proprietary, they never lost sight of the rights of freemen.

The wise and prudent measures of the governour, with regard to the Indians, had hitherto ensured a peace, which had proved extremely beneficial to the province, during its weakness. The intrigues of Cleyborne, however, infused a jealousy that was never altogether eradicated. The rapid increase of strangers, which threatened their own annihilation as a people, and the donation of their lands, without the authority of government, for trifling considerations, gave them the greatest dissatisfaction. All these causes brought on an Indian war, in 1642, which lasted for several years, and was attended with the customary evils. A peace was at length concluded on the usual conditions, of present submission and of future amity.

Laws were soon after made, to prevent, in future, the existence of the same causes. All purchases of lands from the Indians, without the consent of the proprietary, were declared illegal and void. It was made "felony of death" for any person "to sell or transport any friendly Indians." And it was declared to be highly penal to deliver any arms or ammunition to them. These salutary regulations, with the prudent conduct of the governour, preserved a long and advantageous peace with the aborigines.

The publick tranquillity was scarcely restored, when it was disturbed by mischiefs of greater magnitude and more malignant effects. The restless Cleyborne, joined by Richard Ingle, who had been proclaimed a traitor against his king, in 1643, aided by the turbulent spirit of the times, raised a rebellion in this province, in the beginning of the year 1645, and obliged Calvert, the governour, to flee into Virginia for protection. The administration, which he had been constrained to relinquish, Cleyborne's adherents instantly seized on as fallen to them, and exercised it with great violence. And, notwithstanding Calvert's most rigorous exertions, the revolt was not suppressed, nor quiet restored, till August, 1646. The calamities of that period are sufficiently described by the assembly, when they say, "that the province had been wasted by a miserable dissension and unhappy war, which had been closed by a happy restitution of a blessed peace."

The revolt being thus suppressed, and order restored in the state, the assembly endeavoured, with a laudable anxiety, to preserve the peace of the church; and though composed chiefly of Roman Catholicks, which would have enabled it to have passed any regulation peculiarly favourable to that denomination, the act which it passed, "concerning religion," breathes a spirit of liberality uncommon at that period. It recited that the enforcement of conscience had ever been of dangerous consequence in those countries in which it had been practised. And it was enacted, "that no persons, professing to believe in Jesus Christ, should be molested in respect of their religion, or in the free exercise thereof, or be compelled to the exercise of any other religion, against their consent; so that they be not unfaithful to the proprietary, or conspire against the civil government. That any person molesting another in respect of his religious tenets, should pay treble damages to the party aggrieved, and twenty shillings to

the proprietary; that those reproaching any with opprobrious names of religious distinction, should forfeit ten shillings to the persons injured; that any one speaking reproachfully against the blessed virgin, or the apostles, should forfeit five pounds. But blasphemy against God should be punished with death." This act passed 1649, and was confirmed in 1676, among the perpetual laws of the province.

Virginia, at this period, animated by a very different spirit, passed severe laws against the puritans, whose ministers were not suffered to preach. This occasioned numbers to emigrate to Maryland.

Extraordinary scenes were, at this time, exhibited on the colonial theatres. In Massachusetts, the Congregationalists, intolerant towards the Episcopalians, and every other sect; the Episcopal church retaliating upon them in Virginia; and the Roman Catholicks of Maryland, tolerating and protecting all.

The year 1650 is remarkable in the history of Maryland, for the final establishment of that constitution, which continued, with some short interruption, till the present one was adopted in 1776. The burgesses, who convened in 1642, "desired that they might be separated and sit by themselves, and have a negative." The governour did not grant their request. They, however, afterwards availed themselves of the distraction which took place, about this time, and the assembly, in 1649, divided into two branches, and transacted affairs in form of upper and lower house. A law was now (1650) passed "for settling this present assembly." It enacted, that those, who were called by special writ, should constitute the upper house; those chosen by the hundreds should form the lower house; and that all bills, which should be assented to by the two branches of the legislature, and confirmed by the governour, should be deemed the laws of the province, and have the same effect as if the freemen were personally present. It is from this epoch of its existence, that the democratick part of the assembly, consisting of fourteen delegates, must date the origin of its peculiar immunities or exclusive privileges. An act of recognition of the undoubted right of lord Baltimore to the province was passed at the same session.

The province, at this time was divided into three counties: viz. St. Mary's, the isle of Kent and Ann-Arundel. These counties were subdivided into eight hundreds.

In September, 1651, commissioners were appointed by the then ruling powers in England, "for reducing and governing the provinces within the bay of Chesapeak;" which trust they executed with great attention and dexterity.

The following year, the commissioners issued a variety of orders with respect to Maryland. Yet, while they established the authority of the commonwealth, they permitted the proprietary, who had acknowledged its authority, to rule the province, as formerly; though, in the name of the keepers of the liberties of England. But in 1654, the year after he was made protector for life, Cromwell seized the government. Contentions issued between the Roman Catholicks and the puritans; the former adhering to their old constitution, the latter to the new established authority of the commonwealth; which, at length, issued in a civil war. Various skirmishes were fought with

various success, till, finally, a decisive engagement took place, and the Roman Catholicks were vanquished; the governour, Stone, was taken prisoner, and ordered to be executed according to martial law; but the mildness of his administration had so endeared him to the soldiers of his adversaries, that, by their intercessions, his sentence was suspended. He, however, suffered a long and rigorous confinement.

In July, 1654, Cleyborne, who has been so often mentioned as the evil genius of Maryland, appointed Fuller, Preston and others, commissioners "for directing the affairs of Maryland, under his highness, the lord protector." And these men called an assembly to meet in the next October. The burgesses, returned for St. Mary's county, refused to serve, deeming it "inconsistent with the oaths which they had taken to lord Baltimore."

This assembly first passed "an act of recognition of Cromwell's just title, and authority," as from him it had derived its power. It next passed "an act concerning religion," declaring that none who professed the popish religion, could be protected in this province, by the laws of England, formerly established and yet unrepealed; nor by the government of the commonwealth. That such as professed faith in God, by Jesus Christ, though differing in judgment from the doctrine and discipline publickly held forth, should not be restrained from the exercise of their religion, provided such liberty was not extended to popery or prelacy, or to such as under the profession of Christ, practised licentiousness." The contrast between this and the act of assembly of 1649, relative to religion, reflects great honour on the liberality and good sense of the Roman Catholicks.

In March, 1658, the government was surrendered by the commissioners, to Josiah Fendall, Esq. who had been appointed governour by the proprietary. During his administration, the burgesses of the assembly, which met in February, 1659, by his connivance or direction, dissolved the upper house, and assumed every power in the state. Into their hands he treacherously surrendered what had so lately been entrusted to him by the proprietary, and from them he accepted a new commission as governour.

The Hon. Philip Calvert, Esq. being appointed governour, by the proprietary, in June, 1660, assumed the administration the next December.

Notwithstanding these various distractions and revolutions, Maryland continued to increase in population and wealth. At the epoch of the restoration (1660) this province contained about 12,000 souls.*

In 1662, Charles Calvert, eldest son of the proprietary, assumed, by appointment of his father, the administration of the government of Maryland; and, if we may decide from the various "acts of gratitude" which were passed by the assembly, he followed, with the greatest success, the salutary maxims of his father.

In the beginning of the year 1676, died Cecilius, the father of his province, covered with age and reputation, in the forty-fourth year of his government. He lived to see his province divided into ten coun-

* British Empire in America, Vol. 1 p. 191.

ties, containing about 16,000† inhabitants, of whom, the Roman Catholicks were, to the number of Protestants, in the proportion of a hundred to one. But there were no parishes laid out, nor churches erected, nor publick maintenance granted, for the support of the ministry. And there were then in Maryland only three clergymen of the church of England.

Charles Calvert, who had governed the province with great ability, prudence and reputation, from the year 1661, succeeded his father as proprietary, in the year 1676. He immediately convened an assembly in which he presided in person. They carefully revised the whole code of laws, repealed the unnecessary, explained the obscure, and confirmed the salutary.

Early in the year 1689, a rumour was artfully disseminated, which faction had framed, and credulity believed, "that a popish administration, supported by papists, had leagued with Indians, to cut off all the protestants in the province." Confusion, dismay and indignation, instantly seized the people. Every art was tried to satisfy them of the falsehood, the folly and absurdity of the report; but in vain. "An association in arms, for the defence of the protestant religion, and for asserting the right of King William and Queen Mary to that province, and all the English dominions," was formed in April, 1689. The association placed at their head, John Coode, a seditious, profligate character, who, in 1681, had been tried and condemned for seditious practices, but had been pardoned. The deputies, at first, endeavoured to oppose the association with force; but meeting few supporters, they were constrained to deliver up the fort, with the powers of government, by capitulation; and a revolution in government, of great extent and duration, ensued in Maryland.

Thus were the prerogatives of the proprietary which he had exerted with an unexampled attention to the rights of the people, together with the privileges of the Roman Catholicks, which they had hitherto enjoyed under the mildest of laws, overwhelmed at once by the provincial popish plot, and buried in the same grave. William approved the revolution, and transmitted orders to those who had thus acquired the power, to exercise it, in his name, for the preservation of peace; and, for the succeeding 27 years, the government of the province remained in the crown of England. In 1692, the protestant religion was established by law in this province.

In the year 1716, the government was restored to Charles, lord Baltimore, the then proprietary, and continued in his, and his successors' hands, till the late revolution; when, though a minor, the proprietary's property in the lands was confiscated, and the government assumed by the freemen of the province, who framed their present constitution.

In regard to the American revolution, which separated Britain and her colonies, Maryland was not behind her sister states in its accomplishment.

In July, 1775, the Maryland convention met at Annapolis, and unanimously resolved upon an association to be signed by its mem-

† Other accounts say there were, at this period, twenty thousand souls at least.

bers, and by all the freemen of the then province. They said, "we do unite as one band, and solemly pledge ourselves to each other, and to America, that we will, to the utmost of our powers, support the present opposition, carrying on, as well by arms, as by the continental association, restraining our commerce," &c. They also resolved, "that there be forty companies of minute men enrolled as soon as might be, that every able-bodied, effective freeman, within the province, between 16 and 50, (with the usual exception in such cases) as soon as might be, and at furthest before the 15th of September, should enrol himself in some company of militia." They established a council of safety, consisting of 16 persons, who were to regulate the operations of the minute men and militia, and also, during the recess, to do all other matters for securing the province, and for providing for its defence. They ordered committees of observation and of correspondence to be chosen, and bills of credit to the amount of 266,666 dollars, to be struck off, with all convenient speed, for the service of the province.

Maryland was the last to sign the articles of confederation, published by Congress after the declaration of independence. The reason she assigned for her delay, was, "that she had no vacant, unappropriated western territory, of which there were large tracts in the United States, and which, she contended, with great justice, ought to be deemed the common property of the Union, and pledged as a fund for sinking the national debt." Till, therefore, some satisfaction should be given on the subject, she declined acceding to the confederation. Congress having recommended to the several states, claiming such country, to relinquish their claims to the Union, which being complied with on the part of some of the states, the legislature of Maryland, by the earnest request of Congress, empowered their delegates in Congress, by an act for that purpose, to subscribe and ratify the articles of confederation; and this they did, as well from a desire to perpetuate and strengthen the union, as from a confidence in the justice and generosity of the larger states; and from a belief, that, rising superior to local interests, they would consent to such arrangements of the unappropriated lands, included in the respective charters, as good policy required, and the great exertions of their own state, in the common cause, had so highly deserved. On the first of March, 1781, they signed the articles of confederation, and they were thus finally ratified.

At the close of the war, Henry Harford, Esq. the natural son and heir of lord Baltimore, petitioned the legislature of Maryland for his estate; his petition, however, was not granted, for reasons which we are not able to assign. He estimated his loss of quit-rents, valued at 20 years purchase, and including arrears, at £259,488 5*s*. Maryland currency; and the value of his manors and reserved lands at £327,441 of the same money.

This state, in 1804, recovered in the court of chancery (England) a claim on the bank stock of that country, to the amount of about 800,000 dollars.

During the rage of the paper currency *mania*, in many of the states, soon after the peace, Maryland escaped the calamity. The house of delegates brought forward a bill for the emission of bills of credit to

a large amount; but the senate firmly and successfully resisted the pernicious scheme. The opposition between the two houses was violent and tumultuous; it threatened the state, for a while, with anarchy; but the question was carried to the people, and the good sense of the senate finally prevailed.

When the present federal constitution came before the convention of Maryland, in April, 1788, several men of talents appeared in opposition to it, and were unremitted in their endeavours, before, as well as during the sitting of the convention, to persuade the people, that the proposed plan of government was artfully calculated to deprive them of their dearest rights. But on taking the voice of the convention, there appeared in favour of adopting it 63 against 12.

In the report of the commissioners for settling the accounts of the United States with the individual states, Maryland appears on the side of the debtor states, charged with a debt to the Union of 151,640 dollars.

List of Governours, with the dates of their appointments.

Hon. Leonard Calvert, Esq. appointed Governour,	1637
Thomas Green, Esq.	1647
William Stone, Esq.	1649
The government remained in the hands of the parliament commissioners, during the time of Oliver Cromwell's usurpation	1654
The commissioners, by certain articles of agreement then entered into, delivered up the government into the hands of	
Josiah Fendall, Esq. then governour	1658
Hon. Philip Calvert made governour	1660
Charles Calvert, Esq.	1662
Upon the death of Cecilius, the government descended to	
Charles, Lord Baltimore, who came into the province	1675
Thomas Notly, Esq. governour	1678
Who continued till his lordship returned a second time to	
the province in	1681
King William and Queen Mary took upon them the government and appointed Lyonel Copley, Esq. Governour	1692
Francis Nicholson, Esq.	1694
Upon the death of Queen Mary, the government was altogether in the hands of King William III.	1696
Nathaniel Blackiston, Esq. governour	1699
By the death of King William III. Queen Ann took upon her the government—and the same governour was continued	1701-2
Thomas Finch, Esq. President	1703
John Seymour, Esq. governour	1704
Edward Lloyd, Esq. president	1704
John Hart, Esq. governour	1714
Upon the death of Queen Ann, King George I. took upon him the government—and the same governour was continued	1715
The government was restored to Charles, Lord Baltimore,	
who issued a new commission to John Hart, Esq.	1716
Charles Calvert, Esq. governour	1720

Benedict Leonard Calvert, Esq. governour	1727
The Proprietor came into the province in	1733
And returned to England	1734
Samuel Ogle, Esq. governour	1737
Thomas Bladen, Esq. Governour	1742
Samuel Ogle, Esq. governour	1747
By the death of Charles, Lord Baltimore, the province descended to his son Frederick. Gov. Ogle died the same year	1751
Benjamin Tasker, Esq. president	1751
Horatio Sharp, Esq. governour	1753
Robert Eden, Esq. governour	1769
Frederick, Lord Baron of Baltimore, died	1771
Robert Eden, Esq. Governour	1773
Thomas Johnson, Esq.	1776
Thomas Sine Lee, Esq.	1779
William Paca, Esq.	1782
William Smallwood, Esq.	1785
John Eager Howard, Esq.	1788
George Plater, Esq. who died early in	1792
Thomas Sine Lee, Esq.	1792
John H. Stone, Esq.	1794
John Henry, Esq. who resigned in	1798
Benjamin Ogle, Esq.	1798
John J. Mercer, Esq.	1801

COLUMBIA TERRITORY.

THIS territory is ten miles square, and embraces the city of Washington, Georgetown and Alexandria. This district was ceded to the United States, by Maryland and Virginia, for the purpose of establishing in it, the capital of our country, the seat of the general government. It embraces a section of the Patowmack river, extending from the southern part of Alexandria, to a point about 5 miles above Georgetown, and includes a part of one of the Patowmack canals. This section of the river, from the Maryland side, receives the Eastern Branch, which bounds the city of Washington on the S. E. Tiber, Reedy, and Rock Creeks; and from the Virginia side, Four Mile Run, whose mouth is opposite to that of the Eastern Branch.

Washington City, stands at the junction of the river Patowmack, and the Eastern Branch, lat. 38° 58′, N. extending nearly 4 miles up each. For although the land in general appears level, yet by gentle and gradual swellings, a variety of elegant prospects are produced, and a sufficient descent formed for conveying off the water occasioned by rain. Within the limits of the city are a great number of excellent springs; and by digging wells, water of the best quality may

readily be had. Beside, the never failing streams that now run through that territory may also be collected for the use of the city. The waters of Reedy Branch and of Tiber Creek may be conveyed to the President's house. The source of Tiber creek is elevated about 236 feet above the level of the tide in said creek. The perpendicular height of the ground on which the capitol stands, is 78 feet above the level of the tide in Tiber Creek. The water of Tiber Creek may therefore be conveyed to the capitol, and after watering that part of the city, may be destined to other useful purposes. The Eastern Branch forms a safe and commodious harbour, being sufficiently deep for the largest ships, for about 4 miles above its mouth, while the channel lies close along the bank adjoining the city, and affords a large and convenient harbour. The Patowmack, although only navigable for small craft, for a considerable distance from its banks next the city, (excepting about half a mile above the junction of the rivers) will nevertheless afford a capacious summer harbour; as a great number of ships may ride in the great channel, opposite to, and below the city. The situation of this metropolis is upon the great post road, equi-distant from the northern and southern extremities of the Union, and nearly so from the Atlantick and Pittsburgh, upon the best navigation, and in the midst of a commercial territory, probably the richest, and commanding the most extensive internal resource of any in America. It has therefore many advantages to recommend it, as an eligible place for the permanent seat of the general government. The plan of this city appears to contain some important improvements upon that of the best planned cities in the world; combining, in a remarkable degree, convenience, regularity, elegance of prospect, and a free circulation of air. The positions of the different publick edifices, and for the several squares and areas of different shapes as they are laid down, were first determined on the most advantageous ground, commanding the most extensive prospects and from their situation susceptible of such improvements as either use or ornament may hereafter require. The capitol is situated on a most beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a considerable part of the country around. The President's house stands on a rising ground, possessing a delightful water prospect, together with a commanding view of the capitol, and the most material parts of the city. Lines or avenues of direct communication, have been devised to connect the most distant and important objects. These transverse avenues, or diagonal streets, are laid out on the most advantageous ground for prospect and convenience, and are calculated not only to produce a variety of charming prospects, but greatly to facilitate the communication throughout the city. N. and S. lines, intersected by others running due E. and W. make the distribution of the city into streets, squares, &c. and those lines have been so combined, as to meet at certain given points, with the divergent avenues, so as to form, on the spaces *first determined*, the different squares or areas. The grand avenues, and such streets as lead immediately to publick places, are from 130 to 160 feet wide, and may be conveniently divided into foot ways, a walk planted with trees on each side, and a paved way for carriages.

The other streets are from 90 to 110 feet wide. In order to execute this plan, Mr. Ellicott drew a true meridional line by celestial observation, which passes through the area intended for the capitol. This line he crossed by another, running due E. and W. which passes through the same area. These lines were accurately measured and made the bases on which the whole plan was executed. He ran all the lines by a transit instrument, and determined the acute angles by actual measurement, leaving nothing to the uncertainty of the compass.

The city contained in 1800, 3,210 inhabitants, and in 1803, 4,353 of whom, 940 were people of colour; and at the period last mentioned about 880 houses, 350 of brick, a few of stone, the rest of wood; many of these houses are large and handsome. These buildings are in 5 separate divisions or villages; one near the capitol, one near the navy yard, one at Greenleaf's Point, one near the president's house, and one near Georgetown. This last is the smallest, and that at Greenleaf's Point is the most solitary. Of 7 ranges of buildings, each having from 2 to 4 tenements, 2 and 3 stories high, not more than 3 are inhabited; all the other large and elegant buildings are falling into ruins. Of 26 brick houses, 2 stories high near the capitol, not more than 3 or 4 are habitable. The others are rapidly decaying. There are 3 places for publick worship, one for Roman Catholicks, one for Baptists, and one for Episcopalians. During the session of Congress the chaplains are permitted to preach in the representatives' room. The hall of the treasury department is also occasionally used for publick worship. The president's house is 170 by 85 feet, two stories high. It is built of free white stone, the roof covered with slate. The plan of the capitol is to present, when completed, a front of 362 feet, but only the N. wing is yet erected. The Hotel stands at the corner of 7th and 8th streets, extending 60 feet on the first, 120 on the other. The building is of brick, the basement is of cut white stone, 10 feet high, half of which is under ground. It is three stories high; the first and second are 14 feet high, the third is eleven. The gaol is 100 feet by 26, two stories high, the first 9, the second 8 feet high. In the city are three market houses. At the navy yard are three large brick buildings for the reception of naval stores. Barracks are erected for the Marines, having a front of 300 feet.

A canal, connecting Tiber creek with the Eastern Branch, has been partially executed for a number of years; the tide flows into it 5 or 6 inches deep. At Greenleaf's Point is a powder magazine and a guard house. Two bridges are built over Rock Creek, which divides the city from Georgetown. The bridge near the mouth of the creek has three arches, is about 135 feet in length and 36 wide. The other 650 yards above, is supported by piles, is about 280 feet long and 18 wide. The publick offices occupy two buildings, each about 450 feet from the President's house, and having a front of 120 feet, 60 feet wide, two stories high, with a white stone basement 5 or 6 feet above the surface of the ground; each story is 16 feet high. The treasury department has erected two buildings, each two stories high, for the accommodation of its messengers, &c. Washington is separated from Georgetown, in Montgomery co. Maryland, on the W. by Rock Creek, but that town is now within the territory of Columbia.

It is 42 miles S. W. by S. of Baltimore, 876 from Passamaquoddy, in the district of Maine, 500 from Boston, 248 from New-York, 144 from Philadelphia, 133 from Richmond, in Virginia, 232 from Halifax, in North-Carolina, 630 from Charleston, South-Carolina, and 794 from Savannah, in Georgia.

Descriptions of Georgetown and Alexandria, which are included in Columbia Territory, will be found among the principal towns of Maryland and Virginia, to whom they formerly belonged.

VIRGINIA.*

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 446	between	0° and 8° W. lon.	70,000
Breadth 224	between	36° 30′ and 40° 30′ N. lat.	

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by Maryland, part of Pennsylvania and Ohio river; west by Kentucky; south by North-Carolina; east by the Atlantick Ocean.

Civil Divisions and Population.] This state is divided into two districts and subdivided into counties, which, with their number of inhabitants in 1800, are exhibited in the following table:

EASTERN DISTRICT.

Counties.	Whites.	Blacks.	Counties.	Whites.	Blacks.
Amelia	2,847	6,585	Fauquier	12,575	8,754
Albemarle	9,003	7,436	Franklin	7,728	1,574
Amherst	9,339	7,462	Fluvanna	2,703	1,920
Accomack	11,264	4,429	Goochland	4,893	4,803
Bedford	10,028	4,097	Greensville	2,611	4,116
Buckingham	7,053	6,336	Gloster	3,272	4,909
Brunswick	6,917	9,422	Hanover	6,211	8,192
Caroline	6,857	10,581	Henry	3,844	1,415
Chesterfield	6,630	7,852	Henrico	4,541	4,608
Campbell	6,195	3,671	Halifax	11,466	7,911
Culpepper	10,752	7,348	Isle of Wight	5,313	4,029
Cumberland	4,128	5,711	James city	1,542	2,389
Charlotte	5,629	6,283	King William	3,311	5,744
Charles city	2,352	3,013	King George	2,762	3,987
Dinwiddie	4,987	6,866	King and Queen	4,499	5,380
Elizabeth city	1,256	1,522	Louisa	5,900	5,992
Essex	3,741	5,767	Loudon	15,533	4,990
Fairfax	7,239	6,078	Lunenburg	4,505	5,876

* In the following description of this state, the Author has received much assistance from Mr. Jefferson's celebrated "Notes on Virginia." The reader will find much additional information, received from various authentick sources, interspersed in the following acount of this state.

Counties.	Whites.	Blacks.	Counties.	Whites.	Blacks.
Lancaster	2,249	3,126	Richmond and Westmoreland	5,918	7,826
Matthews	3,002	2,804			
Madison	4,886	3,436	Surry	3,277	3,258
Middlesex	1,687	2,516	Stafford	5,628	4,343
Mecklenberg	8,332	8,676	Spotsylvania	6,172	6,830
Norfolk	7,758	4,735	Sussex	5,074	5,988
Northampton	3,585	3,178	Southampton	7,300	6,625
Nansemond	6,719	4,408	Warwick	635	1,024
Northumberland	3,900	3,903	York	1,211	2,020
New-Kent	2,741	3,622	City of Richmond	3,444	2,293
Nottoway	3,418	5,983	Norfolk borough	4,202	2,724
Orange	6,207	5,242	Petersburg	2,034	1,487
Prince Edward	5,041	5,921	Alexandria	4,096	875
Prince George	3,045	4,380	Part of the Co. of Fairfax in the Dis. of Columbia	681	297
Powhatan	2,738	5,031			
Pittsylvania	8,564	4,133			
Princess Ann	5,285	3,574			
Patrick	3,682	647	Total, E. Dist.	354,483	322,199
Prince William	7,317	5,416			

WESTERN DISTRICT.

Bottetourt	8,482	1,343	Montgomery	8,076	968
Fincastle	426	176	Randolph	1,741	85
Washington	8,357	817	Monongalia	8,377	163
Abington	279	83	Barclay	14,894	3,679
Kanhawa	3,008	231	Smithfield	154	2
Hampshire	7,310	587	Middletown	154	14
Romney	179	26	Muhlenburgh	965	112
Springfield	76	10	Bath	213	11
Frankfort	153	7	Darksville	125	7
Greenbriar	3,894	271	Shepardstown	1,033	75
Lewisburgh	154	26	Charlestown	497	71
Monroe	3,999	189	Grayson	3,742	170
Rockingham	9,322	1,052	Lee	3,295	243
Pendleton	3,654	124	Augusta	9,766	1,946
Franklin	176	8	Hardy	6,004	623
Bath	4,847	661	Brooke	4,418	288
Frederick	16,257	5,118	Harrison	4,603	245
Winchester	1,780	348	Wood	1,156	61
Stephensburgh	449	64	Shenandoah	11,809	788
Fort Royal	207	47	Strasburgh	337	15
Middletown	154	12	Woodstock	615	19
Berryville	72	59	New-Market	271	19
Keinstown	86	14	Rockbridge	7,875	1,070
Pughtown	76	1			
Ohio	4,483	257	Total, W. Dist.	179,913	23,597
Wythe	5,549	831	Total, E. Dist.	354,483	322,199
Russell	4,456	352			
Tazewell	1,908	219	Total in the state	534,396	345,796

Climate.] In an extensive country, it will be expected that the climate is not the same in all its parts. It is remarkable, that, proceeding on the same parallel of latitude westwardly, the climate becomes colder in like manner as when you proceed northwardly. This continues to be the case till you attain the summit of the Allegany, which is the highest land between the ocean and the Missisippi. From thence, descending in the same latitude to the Missisippi, the change reverses ; and, if we may believe travellers, it becomes warmer there than it is in the same latitude on the sea side. Their testimony is strengthed by the vegetables and animals which subsist and multiply there naturally, and do not on the sea-coast. Thus catalpas grow spontaneously on the Missisippi, as far as the latitude of 37°, and reeds as far as 38°. Paroquets even winter on the Scioto, in the 39th degree of latitude.

The S. W. winds, east of the mountains, are most predominant. Next to these, on the sea coast, the N. E. and at the mountains the N. W. winds prevail. The difference between these winds is very great. The N. E. is loaded with vapour, insomuch that the salt manufacturers have found that their crystals would not shoot while that blows ; it occasions a distressing chill, and a heaviness and depression of the spirits. The N. W. is dry, cooling, elastick and animating. The E. and S. E. breezes come on generally in the afternoon. They have advanced into the country very sensibly within the memory of people now living. Mr. Jefferson reckons the extremes of heat and cold to be 98° above, and 6° below 0, in Farenheit's thermometer.

That fluctuation between heat and cold, so destructive to fruit, prevails less in Virginia than in Pennsylvania, in the spring season ; nor is the overflowing of the rivers in Virginia so extensive or so frequent at that season, as those of the New-England states ; because the snows in the former do not lie accumulating all winter, to be dissolved all at once in the spring, as they do sometimes in the latter. In Virginia, below the mountains, snow seldom lies more than a day or two, and seldom a week ; and the large rivers seldom freeze over. This fluctuation of weather, however, is sufficient to render the winters and springs very unwholesome, as the inhabitants have to walk in almost perpetual slop.

The month of June, though often the hottest, is the most healthy in the year. The weather is then dry and less liable to change than in August and September ; when the rain commences, and sudden variations take place. In October and November the weather is pleasant and serene.

On the sea-coast, the land is low, generally within 12 feet of the level of the sea, intersected in all directions with salt creeks and rivers the heads of which form swamps and marshes, and fenny ground, covered with water, in wet seasons. The uncultivated lands are covered with large trees, and thick underwood. The vicinity of the sea, and salt creeks and rivers, occasion a constant moisture and warmth of the atmosphere, so that although under the same latitude, 100 or 150 miles in the country, deep snows and frozen rivers frequently happen, for a short season, yet here, such occurences are

considered as phenomena; for these reasons, the trees are often in bloom as early as the last of February; from this period, however, till the end of April, the inhabitants are incommoded by cold rains, piercing winds, and sharp frosts, which subject them to the inflammatory diseases, known here under the names of pleurisy and peripneumony.

Rivers and Canals.] An inspection of the map of Virginia will give a better idea of the geography of its rivers, than any description in writing. Their navigation may be imperfectly noted.

Roanoke, which has its course chiefly in North-Carolina, rises in Virginia. Staunton is one of its principal branches. It rises on the western side of the Blue ridge, where it has the name of Roanoke; but as soon as it passes the ridge it takes the name of Staunton, which it preserves to its junction with Dan river, where the confluent stream takes the name of Roanoke. Staunton and Dan, at their junction, are nearly of the same size; the former might be rendered navigable for 100 miles from its mouth.

James River and its waters afford navigation as follows; The whole of Elizabeth River, the lowest of those which run into James River, is a harbour and would contain upwards of 300 ships. The channel is from 150 to 200 fathoms wide, and, at common flood tide, affords 18 feet water to Norfolk. The Stafford, a 60 gun ship, went there, lightening herself to cross the bar at Sowell's Point. The Fier Rodrigue, pierced for 64 guns, and carrying 50, went there without lightening. Craney island, at the mouth of this river, commands its channel tolerably well.

Nansemond river is navigable to Sleepy Hole, for vessels of 250 tons; to Suffolk, for those of 100 tons; and to Milner's, for those of 25. Pagan Creek affords 8 or 10 feet water to Smithfield, which admits vessels of 20 tons. Chickahominy has at its mouth a bar, on which is only 12 feet water at common flood tide. Vessels passing that, may go 8 miles up the river; those of 10 feet draught may go four miles further, and those of 6 tons burthen, 20 miles further.

Appomattox may be navigated as far as Broadway, by any vessel which has crossed Harrison's Bar in James River; it keeps 8 or 9 feet water a mile or two higher up to Fisher's Bar, and four feet on that and upwards to Petersburg, where all navigation ceases. A company by the name of "Appomattox Company," has been incorporated for the purpose of rendering boatable this river from Petersburg nearly to its source. The stock of the company is divided into 500 shares of 100 dollars each. The work has been in progress for some time, and will be completed in a few years. A great number of locks have already been constructed, and the river is passable with boats from falls 5 miles above Petersburg, to Farmville in Prince Edward county, about 80 miles as the river runs. A canal is now cutting round the falls, to terminate in Petersburgh, which is in great forwardness.

James River itself affords harbour for vessels of any size in Hampton Road, but not in safety through the whole winter; and there is navigable water for them as far as Mulberry Island. A forty gun ship goes to Jamestown, and lightening herself, may pass to Harri-

son's Bar, on which there is only 15 feet water. Vessels of 250 tons may go to Warwick; those of 125 go to Rockets, a mile below Richmond; from thence is about seven feet water to Richmond; and about the centre of the town, four feet and a half, where the navigation is interrupted by falls, which, in a course of six miles, descend about 80 feet perpendicular. A company has been incorporated to cut a canal around these falls, and to clear the river through the mountains. The canal, which terminates in a large bason in the city of Richmond, is completed, and much has been done towards clearing the river through the mountains, so that a great part of the produce of the country, as high up as Lexington, which formerly was carried to market in waggons, is now transported in boats to the great accommodation of the inhabitants. One hundred shares in this canal were given by Gen. Washington to Washington Academy or College, in Rockbridge county. The expense would not be great, when compared with its object, to open a tolerable navigation up Jackson's river and Carpenter's or Dunlap's creek, to within 25 miles of Howard's creek or Greenbriar, both of which have then water enough to float vessels into the Great Kanhawa. In some future state of population, it is possible that its navigation may also be made to interlock with that of Patowmack, and through that to communicate by a short portage with the Ohio. Formerly, from the junction of the Cow-pasture and Jackson's river to its confluence with the Rivanna, it was called Fluvanna river, and bestowed its name on the county of Fluvanna. This appellation of the river has grown into disuse; James River being that by which it is generally distinguished.

The Rivanna, a branch of James River, is navigable for canoes and batteaux to Milton near Charlottesville.

York River, at Yorktown, affords the best harbour in the state for vessels of the largest size. The river there narrows to the width of a mile, and is contained within very high banks, close under which vessels may ride. It holds four fathoms of water at high tide for 25 miles above York to the mouth of Poropotank, where the river is a mile and a half wide, and the channel only 75 fathoms, passing under a high bank. At the confluence of Pamunkey and Mattapony, it is reduced to three fathoms depth, which continues up Pamunkey to Cumberland, where the width is 100 yards, and up Mattapony to within two miles of Frazier's ferry, where it becomes two and a half fathoms deep, and holds that about five miles. Pamunkey is then capable of navigation for loaded floats to Brockman's bridge, 50 miles above Hanover town, and Mattapony to Downer's bridge 70 miles above its mouth.

Piankatank, the little rivers making out of Mobjack Bay, and those of the Eastern Shore, receive only very small vessels, and these can but enter them. Rappahannock affords four fathoms water to Hobb's Hole, and two fathoms from thence to Fredericksburg, 110 miles.

Patowmack is 7½ miles wide at the mouth; 4½ at Nomony Bay; 3 at Aquia; 1½ at Hallooing Point; 1¼ at Alexandria. Its soundings are, 7 fathoms at the mouth; 5 at St. George's Island; 4½ at Lower Matchodick; 3 at Swan's Point, and thence up to Alexandria; thence 10 feet water to the falls, which are 13 miles above Alexandria. The

tides in the Patowmack are not very strong, excepting after great rains, when the ebb is pretty strong; then there is little or no flood; and there is never more than four or five hours flood, except with long and strong south winds.

The distance from the Capes of Virginia to the termination of the tide water in this river is above 300 miles; and navigable for ships of the greatest burthen, nearly that distance. From thence this river, obstructed by four considerable falls, extends through a vast tract of inhabited country towards its source. These falls are 1st, the Little Falls, three miles above tide water, in which distance there is a fall of 36 feet; 2d, the Great Falls, six miles higher, where is a fall of 76 feet in one mile and a quarter; 3d, the Seneca Falls, six miles above the former, which form short irregular rapids, with a fall of about 10 feet; and 4th, the Shenandoah Falls, 60 miles from the Seneca, where is a fall of about 30 feet in three miles: from which last, Fort Cumberland, is about 120 miles distant. The obstructions, which are opposed to the navigation above and between these falls, are not great. The force of the current is such that boats ascend only at particular times. At Fort Cumberland in a dry season, it is but a mill stream, but boats go 20 miles higher to Paddytown. The boatmen say the descent in some places is eleven feet in $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile.

Early in the year 1785, the legislatures of Virginia and Maryland passed acts to encourage opening the navigation of this river. It was estimated that the expense of the works would amount to £50,000 sterling, and 10 years were allowed for their completion. The locks* have since been finished.

By an estimate of the toll made many years ago, it was calculated that the amount, in the commencement, would be at the rate of 11,875l. Virginia currency, per annum. The toll must every year become more productive; as the quantity of articles for exportation will be augmented in a rapid ratio, with the increase of population and the extension of settlements. In the mean time the effect will be immediately seen in the agriculture of the interiour country; for the multitude of horses now employed in carrying produce to market, will then be used altogether for the purposes of tillage.

The main branch of the river which extends from tide water to the foot of the Allegany mountains, is now navigable to the mouth of George's Creek, about 220 miles above Washington. Works are also

* A lock is a bason placed lengthwise in a river or canal, lined with walls of masonry on each side, and terminated by two gates, placed where there is a cascade or natural fall of the country; and so constructed that the bason being filled with water by an upper sluice, to the level of the waters above, a vessel may ascend through the upper gate; or the water in the lock being reduced to the level of the water at the bottom of the cascade, the vessel may descend through the lower gate; for when the waters are brought to a level on either side, the gate on that side may be easily opened. But as the lower gate is strained in proportion to the depth of water it supports when the perpendicular height of the water exceeds 12 or 13 feet, more locks than one become necessary. Thus if the fall be seventeen feet, two locks are required, each having $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet fall; and if the fall be 26 feet, three locks are necessary, each having eight feet eight inches fall. The side walls of the locks ought to be very strong. Where the natural foundation is bad, they should be founded on piles, and platforms of wood; they should likewise slope outwards, in order to resist the pressure of the earth from behind.

advancing on several branches. The south branch has been rendered navigable 50 or 60 miles; the Monocasy about half that distance and the attention of the company is now directed to the Shenandoah, which will add 200 miles to the inland navigation of the country.

The Shenandoah which empties just above the Blue Mountains* may, according to report, be made navigable, at a trifling expense, more than 150 miles from its confluence with the Patowmack; and will receive and bear the produce of the richest part of the state. Commissioners have been appointed to form a plan, and to estimate the expense of opening the channel of this river, if on examination it should be found practicable. The South Branch, still higher, is navigable in its actual condition nearly or quite 100 miles, through exceedingly fertile lands. Between these on the Virginia side are several smaller rivers, that may with ease be improved, so as to afford a passage for boats. On the Maryland side are the Monocasy, Antietam and Conegocheague, some of which pass through the state of Maryland, and have their sources in Pennsylvania.

From Fort Cumberland, (or Wills' Creek) one or two good waggon roads may be had (where the distance is said by some to be 35 and by others 40 miles) to the Youghiogany, a large and navigable branch of the Monongahela, which last forms a junction with the Allegany at Fort Pitt.

But, by passing farther up the Patowmack than Fort Cumberland, which may very easily be done, a portage by a good waggon road to Cheat River, another large branch of the Monongahela, can be obtained through a space which some say is 20, others 22, others 25, and none more than 30 miles.

When we have arrived at either of these western waters, the navigation through that immense region is opened by a thousand directions, and to the lakes in several places by portages of less than ten miles; and by one portage, it is asserted of not more than a single mile.

Notwithstanding it was sneeringly said by some foreigners, at the beginning of this undertaking, that the Americans are fond of engaging in splendid projects which they never could accomplish, yet it is hoped the success of this first essay towards improving their inland navigation, will in some degree rescue them from the reproach intended to have been fixed upon their national character, by the unmerited imputation.

The Great Kanhawa is a river of considerable note for the fertility of its lands, and still more, as leading towards the head waters of James River. Its head waters interlock with those of Holston and Roanoke, and for a considerable distance from its source it is called New River. It is doubtful whether its great and numerous rapids will admit a navigation, but at an expense to which it will require ages to render its inhabitants equal. The great obstacles begin at what are called the Great Falls 90 miles above the mouth, below

* A tract of 500 acres of land at the confluence of the Shenandoah and Patowmack has been purchased by the President, intended as a site for the arsenal of the United States. This point is said to be a high rocky hill, of indifferent land, except a small tract at the ferry. The government have begun to dig a canal on the Patowmack side for the accomodation of the establishment.

which are only five or six rapids, and these passable, with some difficulty even at low water. From the falls to the mouth of Green-Briar is 100 miles, and thence to the lead mines 120. It is 280 yards wide at its mouth. The principal branches of the Great Kanhawa, as you ascend it, are Louisa or Coal river from the west—Elk, 60 miles from its mouth—Gaully river, more than 100—Greenbriar, nearly 200. The three latter from the east.

The Little Kanhawa is 150 yards wide at the mouth. It affords a navigation of ten miles only. Perhaps its northern branch, called Junius' Creek, which interlocks with the western waters of Monongahela, may one day admit a shorter passage from the latter into the Ohio.

Mountains.] It is worthy of notice, that the mountains on the eastern side of the great Allegany ridge are not solitary and scattered confusedly over the face of the country; but commence at about 150 miles from the sea coast, are disposed in ridges one behind another, running nearly parallel with the sea coast, though rather approaching it as they advance north-eastwardly. From the Allegany Mountains to the river Ohio the country is filled with irregular piles of mountains, some of which, Sewall and Gaully Mountains, particularly, over which the road from Greenbriar to Kanhawa runs, are very lofty. To the south-west, as the tract of country between the sea coast and the Missisippi becomes narrower, the mountains converge into a single ridge, which, as it approaches the Gulf of Mexico, subsides into plain country, and gives rise to some of the waters of that gulf, and particularly to a river called Apalachicola, probably from the Apalachies, an Indian nation formerly residing on it. Hence the mountains, giving rise to that river, and seen from its various parts were called the Apalachian Mountains, being in fact the end or termination only of the great ridges passing through the continent. European geographers, however, extended the name northwardly as far as the mountains extended; some giving it after their separation into different ridges, to the Blue Ridge, others to the North Mountains, others to the Allegany, others to the Laurel Ridge, as may be seen in their different maps. But none of these ridges were ever known by that name to the inhabitants, either native or emigrant, but as they saw them so called in European maps. In the same direction generally are the veins of lime-stone, coal and other minerals hitherto discovered; and so range the falls of the great rivers. But the courses of the great rivers are at right angles with these. James and Patowmack penetrate through all the ridges of mountains eastward of the Allegany which is broken by no water course; it is, in fact, the spine of the country between the Atlantick on one side, and the Missisippi and St. Lawrence on the other. The passage of the Patowmack through the Blue Ridge is perhaps one of the most stupendous scenes in nature. You stand on a very high point of land. On your right comes up the Shenandoah, having ranged along the foot of the mountain a hundred miles to seek a vent. On your left approaches the Patowmack, in quest of a passage also. In the moment of their junction they rush together against the mountain, rend it asunder and pass off to the sea. The first glance of this scene hurries our senses into the opinion, that this earth

has been created in time, that the mountains were formed first, that the rivers began to flow afterwards, that in this place particularly they have been dammed up by the Blue ridge of mountains, and have formed an ocean which filled the whole valley; that, continuing to rise, they have at length broken over at this spot, and have torn the mountain down from its summit to its base. The piles of rock on each hand, but particularly on the Shenandoah, the evident marks of their disruption and avulsion from their beds by the most powerful agents of nature, corroborate the impression. But the distant finishing which nature has given to this picture, is of a very different character. It is a true contrast to the fore ground. It is as placid and delightful as that is wild and tremendous. For the mountain, being cloven asunder, presents to the eye, through the cleft, a small catch of smooth blue horizon, at an infinite distance, in the plain country, inviting you, as it were, from the riot and tumult roaring around, to pass through the breach and participate of the calm below. Here the eye ultimately composes itself; and that way too, the road actually leads. You cross the Patowmack above the junction, pass along its side through the base of the mountain for three miles, its terrible precipices hanging in fragments over you, and within about twenty miles reach Fredericktown and the fine country round that. This scene is worth a voyage across the Atlantick. Yet here, as in the neighbourhood of the Natural Bridge, are people who have passed their lives within half a dozen miles, and have never been to survey these monuments of war between rivers and mountains, which must have shaken the earth itself to its centre. The height of the mountains has not yet been estimated with any degree of exactness. The Allegany being the great ridge which divides the waters of the Atlantick from those of the Missisippi, its summit is doubtless more elevated above the ocean than that of any other mountain. But its relative height compared with the base on which it stands, is not so great as that of some others, the country rising behind the successive ridges like the steps of stairs. The mountains of the Blue Ridge, and of these, the Peaks of Otter are thought to be of a greater height, measured from their base, than any others in Virginia, and perhaps in North-America. From data, which may found a tolerable conjecture, we suppose the highest peak to be about 4,000 feet perpendicular, which is not a fifth part of the height of the mountains of South-America, nor one third of the height which would be necessary in our latitude to preserve ice in the open air unmelted through the year. The ridge of mountains next beyond the Blue Ridge, called the North Mountain, is of the greatest extent; for which reason they are named by the Indians the Endless Mountains.

Between the Allegany and Blue Ridge, are many other mountains, as the Short Hill, the House Mountains, the Panther Gap, the Warm Spring Mountains, &c. On Dan River, near the borders of North-Carolina, is a hill, which once was a volcano. It is near a mile in circumference, and 130 feet in height. From the top of this hill for nearly half a mile towards Dan River, are the remains of a stream of lava 7 or 8 inches deep, of the colour of rusty iron. The country for 150 yards round is covered with lava. The crater is partly filled and covered with trees.

The Ouasioto Mountains are 50 or 60 miles wide at the Gap. These mountains abound in coal, lime and free stone; the summits of them are generally covered with a good soil, and a variety of timber; and the low interval lands are rich, and remarkably well watered.

Face of the Country, Soil, Productions, &c.] The whole country below the head of the tide waters, about 100 miles from the sea, is level, and seems from various appearances to have been once washed by the sea. The land between York and James rivers is very level, and its surface about 40 feet above high water mark. It appears from observation, to have arisen to its present height at different periods far distant from each other, and that at these periods it was washed by the sea; for near Yorktown, where the banks are perpendicular, you first see a *stratum*, intermixed with small shells resembling a mixture of clay and sand, and about five feet thick; on this lie, horizontally, small white shells, cockle, clam, &c. an inch or two thick; then a body of earth similar to that first mentioned, 18 inches thick; then a layer of shells and another body of earth; on this, a layer of three feet of white shells mixed with sand, on which lie a body of oyster shells six feet thick, which were covered with earth to the surface. The oyster shells are so united, by a very strong cement, that they fall, only when undermined, and then in large bodies from one to twenty tons weight. They have the appearance of large rocks on the shore.*

These appearances continue in a greater or less degree in the banks of James river, 100 miles from the sea; the appearances then vary, and the banks are filled with sharks' teeth, bones of large and small fish petrified, and many other petrifactions, some resembling the bones of land and other animals, others, vegetable substances. These appearances are not confined to the river banks, but are seen in various places in gullies at considerable distances from the rivers. In one part of the state for 70 miles in length, by sinking a well, you apparently come to the bottom of what was formerly a water course. And even as high up as Botetourt county, among the Allegany mountains, there is a tract of land, judged to be 40,000 acres, surrounded on every side by mountains, which is entirely covered with oyster and cockle shells, and, from some gullies, they appear to be of considerable depth. A plantation at Day's Point, on James river, of as many as 1000 acres, appears at a distance as if covered with snow, but on examination the white appearance is found to arise from a bed of clam shells, which by repeated ploughing have become fine and mixed with earth.

The country above Frederick and Berkley counties is mountainous and poor on each side of the river, excepting the low grounds or "bottoms" which are fertile, but narrow. They are more extensive on the south branch.

The soil of Virginia is very various; above the mountains it produces large crops of wheat, rye, oats, barley, buck wheat, Indian corn, flax and hemp. This country has also excellent meadows, which yield large crops of grass. Between the Blue Ridge and tide water is the tobacco country; but of late wheat is cultivated,

* General Lincoln.

particularly in the northern parts of the state, where the culture of tobacco is almost wholly laid aside. Indian corn and oats are raised here. Between the tide water and the sea, the principal productions are Indian corn, oats and peas. In some counties wheat is raised. They sow a native species of cassia, called the maggoty bay bean, patridge pea, &c. for the purpose of enriching the soil. [*Barton.*] South of James river, cotton is raised in sufficient quantity for home consumption. The south-eastern counties produce cider and apple brandy in large quantities, some for exportation. In some counties they have plenty of exquisite brandy distilled from peaches, which grow in great abundance upon the numerous rivers of the Chesapeak.

The planters, before the war, paid their principal attention to the culture of tobacco, of which there used to be exported, generally, 55,000 hogsheads a year. It is expected that this state will add the article of rice to the list of her exports; as it is supposed, a large body of swamp in the easternmost counties is capable of producing it.

Horned or neat cattle are bred in great numbers in the western counties of Virginia, as well as in the states south of it, where they have an extensive range, and mild winters, without any permanent snows. They run at large, are not housed, and multiply very fast. "In the lower parts of the state a disease prevails among the neat cattle, which proves fatal to all that are not bred there. The oxen, from the more northern states, which were employed at the siege of Yorktown in October, 1781, almost all died, sometimes 40 of them in a night, and often suddenly dropped down dead in the roads. It is said that this disease was brought from the Havanna to South-Carolina or Georgia in some hides, and that it has progressed northward to Virginia. Lord Dunmore imported some cattle from Rhode-Island, and kept them confined in a small pasture, near his seat, where no cattle had been for some years, and where they could not intermix with other cattle, and yet they soon died."*

The gentlemen, being fond of pleasure, have taken much pains to raise a good breed of horses, and have succeeded in it beyond any of the states. They will give 1000*l.* sterling for a good stallion seed horse, and the first rate horses cannot be purchased even at that exorbitant price: Horse racing has had a great tendency to encourage the breeding of good horses, as it affords an opportunity of putting them to the trial of their speed. They are more elegant, and will perform more service, than the horses of the northern states.

It has been discovered that the numerous caves in the mountains of this state are capable of yielding, when worked, immense quantities of salt-petre.

This state does not abound with good fish. Sturgeon, shad, and herring, are the most plenty; perch, sheepshead, drum, rock fish and trout, are common. Besides these they have oysters in abundance crabs, shrimps, &c.

Cascades, Curiosities and Caverns.] The only remarkable cascade in this state is that of Falling Spring, in Augusta. It is a water of James River, where it is called Jackson's river, rising in the warm spring mountains about 20 miles south-west of the warm spring,

* General Lincoln.

and flowing into that valley. About three quarters of a mile from its source, it falls over a rock 200 feet into the valley below. The sheet of water is broken in its breadth by the rock in two or three places, but not at all in its height. Between the sheet and rock, at the bottom, you may walk across dry. This cataract will bear no comparison with that of Niagara, as to the quantity of water composing it; the sheet being only 12 or 15 feet wide above, and somewhat more spread below, but it is half as high again.

In the lime-stone country, there are many caverns of very considerable extent. The most noted is called Madison's Cave, and is on the north side of the Blue Ridge, near the intersection of the Rockingham and Augusta line with the south fork of the southern river of Shenandoah. It is in a hill of about 200 feet perpendicular height, the ascent of which, on one side, is so steep that you may pitch a biscuit from its summit into the river which washes its base. The entrance of the cave is, in this side, about two thirds of the way up. It extends into the earth about 300 feet, branching into subordinate caverns, sometimes ascending a little, but more generally descending, and at length terminates in two different places, at basons of water of unknown extent, and which appear to be nearly on a level with the water of the river. It is probably one of the many reservoirs with which the interior parts of the earth are supposed to abound, and which yield supplies to the fountains of water, distinguished from others only by its being accessible. The vault of this cave is of solid lime-stone, from 20 to 40 or 50 feet high, through which water is continually exuding. This, trickling down the sides of the cave, has incrusted them over in the form of elegant drapery; and dripping from the top of the vault, generates on that, and on the base below, stalactites of a conical form, some of which have met and formed massive columns.

Another of these caves is near the North Mountain, in the county of Frederick. The entrance into this is on the top of an extensive ridge. You descend 30 or 40 feet, as into a well, from whence the cave then extends, nearly horizontally, 400 feet into the earth, preserving a breadth of from 20 to 50 feet, and a height of from 5 to 12 feet. After entering this cave a few feet, the mercury, which in the open air was at 50°, rose to 57° of Farenheit's thermometer.

At the Panther Gap, in the ridge which divides the waters of the Cow and the Calf Pasture, is what is called the Blowing Cave. It is in the side of a hill, and emits constantly a current of air of such force, as to keep the weeds prostrate to the distance of 20 yards before it. This current is strongest in dry frosty weather, and in long spells of rain, weakest. Regular inspirations and expirations of air, by caverns and fissures, have been probably enough accounted for, by supposing them combined with intermitting fountains, as they must of course inhale the air while the reservoirs are emptying themselves, and again emit it while they are filling. But a constant issue of air, only varying in its force as the weather is drier or damper, will require a new hypothesis. There is another blowing cave in the Cumberland Mountain, about a mile from where it crosses the Carolina line. All we know of this is, that it is not constant, and that a fountain of water issues from it.

In the county of Monroe, near the Kanhawa, there is a remarkable cave, extending entirely through the base of a high mountain, the distance of upwards of two miles. Persons have passed from one side of this mountain to the other, through this subterraneous passage. The earth on the bottom of this cave is strongly impregnated with nitre; and saltpetre in any quantity may be made from it.

The Natural Bridge, over Cedar Creek, though far from being the sublimest work of God, is a stupendous natural curiosity. It unites two hills. The height of the bridge from the water is about 210 feet. The bases of the abutments are in different places, from 48 to 70 feet apart, the mean distance being about 60 feet. One of these walls or abutments is nearly perpendicular; the other falls back so that the top of the arch is from 80 to 90 feet wide. The covering of the arch is from 40 to 50 feet thick. It is of lime-stone, forming one entire mass with the two abutments. This is thought by some to contradict the idea, that this fissure was produced by some "great convulsion." Its surface, over which is a considerable road, is a gentle slope, and stony; but generally covered with earth, which supports many large trees. The under side is lower at one end than at the other. Both ends rise like an arch, but in the middle extend horizontally, nearly in a straight line. The walls which support the arch, and those which form the sides of the bridge, are very irregular. In some parts they are smooth and perpendicular, in others there are cavities, while other parts exhibit a protuberant and craggy surface. The bridge crosses the vale obliquely. In the middle it is 65 feet in breadth, but much wider at the ends. The banks which support the bridge extend with the same height, several hundred yards on each side of the stream, but they do not correspond with each other as if rent asunder. Neither does the "fissure continue straight for a considerable distance above and below the bridge." Its course resembles an ill formed $\mathcal{S}$, spreading wider as it extends either above or below. Neither the Blue Ridge nor the North Mountain, can be seen below the bridge. They are both visible from its top, the former six, the latter eight miles distant. Few persons have the courage to approach the sides of this bridge. Those who do are instantly seized with terror. They involuntary fall to the ground, cling to a stone or tree, look down on the frightful abyss, gaze with astonishment at the massy walls, the deep winding valley, the rushing stream, and the distant hills. To persons below, a prospect not less awful and grand is presented. They view the towering arch, the frightful precipice, the gloomy forests, the distant sky, and adore that God who spake, and it was done; who commanded, and it stands fast.* The stream called Cedar Creek is a water of James river, and sufficient, in the driest seasons, to turn a grist mill, though its fountain is not more than two miles above.† There is a natural bridge, similar to the above, over Stock Creek, a branch of Peleson river, in Washington county.

* The facts on which the above account of the Natural Bridge is founded, were received from a gentleman on the spot, and on whose accuracy reliance is to be placed.

† Don Ulloa mentions a break, similar to this, in the province of Angaraez, in South-America. It is from 16 to 22 feet wide, 111 deep, and of 1¾ miles continuance, English measure. Its breadth at top is not sensibly greater than at bottom.

Another Natural Bridge in the county of Lee is a great curiosity. "This bridge is 134 feet higher than the natural bridge in Rockbridge county; being 339 feet in perpendicular height, its summit projects 87 feet over its base, it fronts to the south-west, and is arched as regular as could be by the hand of art; the arch in front is about 200 feet high, and slopes off to 60 feet at the distance of 106 feet from the entrance—from its mouth in a straight direction measures 406 feet—thence at right angles 300 feet—thence crossing the second line at 80 feet from the wall to the other end 340 feet; the roof is regularly arched, and gradually descends to 18 feet, which is the lowest part at the intersection of the second angle; it then rises to 20, 30, 40, and 75 feet, which is the height of the north-east entrance. The stream of water which runs under this bridge is from 35—40, to 55 feet wide, at its common height.—The head of this stream (Stock Creek) is from three to four miles above the bridge, rising out of a knob or spur of Clinch Mountain, and empties itself three miles below into Clinch river—this creek is suddenly swelled by rains sometimes to 15 and 18 feet perpendicular, but it soon runs out. There is a waggon road over the bridge, which is only used in time of freshets, and that is the only part that can be crossed—on approaching it to the south-west front, it produces the most pleasing, awful sensation; the front is a solid rock of lime-stone, the surface very smooth and regular, formed in a semi-circle, the rock of a bright yellow colour, which colour is heightened by the rays of the sun; the arch is partly obscured by a spur of the ridge which runs down the edge of the creek in front of the arch. Across the creek stand several beautiful trees; the most elegant and luxuriant is a cucumber tree, teeming with fruit; the leaves are from 2 to 2½ feet in length, and 1 foot in width—this, with two white cedars, and three walnut trees, adds very much to the beauty of the scene—to describe it would be a vain attempt, and can only be done by the skilful limner.

"If the scene below creates such pleasing sensations, what must that from above be? It fills the mind with horror. From the level of the summit of the ridge where the road passes, to the verge of the fissure, the mountain descends about 45 degrees of an angle, and is from 45 to 50 feet perpendicular height—you involuntarily slide down feet foremost, holding on to every twig you pass, until you may reach the verge, which is for 6 or 8 feet less steep; the rock is covered with a thick stratum of earth, which gives growth to many large trees. From this landing place to the verge is a descent of 9 feet, so steep that it cannot be approached near enough to look over. To the west of the arch about 400 yards the ascent to the verge is much leveller, where you may look into the abyss below. My guide was an old hunter, who had for many years been accustomed to clambering over the steepest mountains. On approaching the verge, the horror of the scene below intimidated him for a few moments, but he could presently walk along the verge with composure. This bridge may be passed by thousands, without a knowledge of it, unless attracted by the roaring of the water below."

"Remains of ancient fortifications are scattered thickly through the western parts of this state, and in Kentucky, embracing from two to ten acres each. One of these is situated on a high bank, on the

east side of Youghiogany river, about 20 miles from its confluence with the Monongahela. Its figure is somewhat like that of a horse-shoe. It is encompassed with a ditch, except at one narrow pass, left probably for a gate way. There are no less than ten of these ancient forts within ten miles of the one above described. The Indians say they are the work of the people of ancient time, before the days of their fathers."*

Mines and Minerals.] Virginia is the most pregnant with minerals and fossils of any state in the Union. A single lump of gold ore has been found near the falls of Rappahannock river, which yielded 17dwt. of gold, of extraordinary ductility. No other indication of gold has been discovered in that neighbourhood. In the county of Buckingham, between James and Appomattox river, have been found small lumps of pure gold from the size of a pin's head to the size of a hazle nut, to the value of several hundred dollars.

On the Great Kanhawa, opposite to the mouth of Cripple Creek, and also about 25 miles from the southern boundary of the state, in the county of Montgomery, are mines of lead. The metal is mixed sometimes with earth, and sometimes with rock, which requires the force of gunpowder to open it; and is accompanied with a portion of silver, too small to be worth separation under any process hitherto attempted there. The proportion yielded is from 50 to 80lb. of pure metal from 100lb. of washed ore. The most common is that of 60 to the 100lb. The veins are at sometimes most flattering, at others they disappear suddenly and totally. They enter the side of the hill, and proceed horizontally. Two of them have been wrought by the publick. These would employ about 50 labourers to advantage. Thirty men, who have at the same time raised their own corn, have produced 60 tons of lead in the year; but the general quantity is from 20 to 25 tons. The present furnace is a mile from the ore bank, and on the opposite side of the river. The ore is first waggoned to the river, a quarter of a mile, then laden on board canoes and carried across the river, which is there about 200 yards wide, and then taken again into waggons and carried to the furnace. This mode was originally adopted that they might avail themselves of a good situation on a creek, for a pounding-mill; but it would be easy to have the furnace and pounding mill on the same side of the river, which would yield water without any dam, by a canal of about half a mile in length. From the furnace the lead is transported 130 miles along a good road, leading through the Peaks of Otter to Lynch's ferry, or Winston's, on James river, from whence it is carried by water about the same distance to Westham. This land carriage may be greatly shortened, by delivering the lead on James River, above the Blue Ridge, from whence a ton weight has been brought in two canoes. The Great Kanhawa has considerable falls in the neighbourhood of the mines. About seven miles below are three falls, of three or four feet perpendicular each; and three miles above is a rapid of three miles continuance, which has been compared in its descent to the great fall of James river. Yet it is the opinion, that they may

* Mr. Attmore's MS. letter to the author.

be laid open for useful navigation, so as to reduce very much the portage between the Kanhawa and James river.

A mine of copper was opened in the county of Amherst, on the north side of James river, and another in the opposite county, on the south side. However, either from bad management or the poverty of the veins they were discontinued. A few years ago there were six iron mines worked in this state. Now there are at least twice that number. The indications of iron in other places are numerous, and dispersed through all the middle country. The toughness of the cast-iron of some of the furnaces is very remarkable. Pots and other utensils, cast thinner than usual of this iron, may be safely thrown into or out the waggons in which they are transported. Salt pans made of the same, and no longer wanted for that purpose, cannot be broken up in order to be melted again, unless previously drilled in many parts. There is a forge with four fires at the great falls of the Patowmack.

In 1800, the United States purchased 230 acres of land in Berkley county, with a furnace, and other buildings and improvements, with a right to dig ore from Friend's ore bank in the neighbourhood. This purchase was made under the idea of establishing works for manufacturing cannon and other implements of war.

In the western part of the state, we are told of iron mines on Chesnut Creek, a branch of the Great Kanhawa, near where it crosses the Carolina line; and in other places.

Considerable quantities of black lead are taken occasionally for use from Winterham, in the county of Amelia. There is no work established at it, those who want, going and procuring it for themselves.

The country on both sides of James River, from 15 to 20 miles above Richmond, and for several miles northward and southward, is replete with mineral coal of a very excellent quality. Being in the hands of many proprietors, pits have been opened, and worked, to an extent equal to the demand. The pits which have been opened lie 150 or 200 feet above the bed of the river, and have been very little incommoded with water. The first discovery of the coal is said to have been made by a boy digging after cray-fish; it has also been found on the bottom of trees blown up. In many places it lies within three or four feet from the surface of the ground. It is conjectured, that 500,000 bushels might be raised from one pit in twelve months.

In the western country, coal is known to be in so many places, as to have induced an opinion, that the whole tract between the Laurel Mountain, Missisippi, and Ohio, yields coal. It is also known in many places on the north side of the Ohio. The coal at Pittsburgh is of a very superior quality. A bed of it at that place has been on fire since the year 1765. Another coal hill on the Pike Run of the Monongahela has been on fire more than ten years, yet it has burnt away about twenty yards only.

I have known one instance, says Mr. Jefferson, of an emerald found in this country. Amethysts have been frequent, and crystals common; yet not in such numbers any of them as to be worth seeking.

There is very good marble, and in very great abundance, on James River, at the mouth of Rockfish. Some white, and as pure as one might expect to find on the surface of the earth; but generally variegated with red, blue, and purple. None of it has ever been worked. It forms a very large precipice, which hangs over a navigable part of the river.

But one vein of lime-stone is known below the Blue Ridge. Its first appearance is in Prince William, two miles below the Pignut ridge of mountains; thence it passes on nearly parallel with that, and crosses the Rivanna about five miles below it, where it is called the South-west Ridge. It then crosses Hardware, above the mouth of Hudson's creek, James River at the mouth of Rockfish, at the marble quarry before spoken of; probably runs up that river to where it appears again at Ross's iron-works, and so passes off south-westwardly by Flat Creek of Otter river. It is never more than 100 yards wide. From the Blue Ridge westwardly the whole country seems to be founded on a rock of lime-stone, besides infinite quantities on the surface, both loose and fixed. This is cut into beds, which range as the mountains and sea-coast do, from south-west to north-east.

Medicinal and Salt Springs.] There are several medicinal springs, some of which are indubitably efficacious, while others seem to owe their reputation as much to fancy, and change of air and regimen, as to their real virtues. None of them have undergone a chymical analysis in skilful hands, nor been so far the subject of observations as to have produced a reduction into classes of the disorders which they relieve; it is in my power to give little more than an enumeration of them.

The most efficacious of these are two springs in Augusta, near the sources of James River, where it is called Jackson's river. They rise near the foot of the ridge of mountains, generally called the Warm Spring mountain, but in the maps Jackson's Mountains. The one is distinguished by the name of the Warm Spring, and the other of the Hot Spring. The Warm Spring issues with a very bold stream, sufficient to work a grist mill, and to keep the waters of its bason, which is 30 feet in diameter, at the vital warmth, viz. 96° of Farenheit's thermometer. The matter with which these waters is allied is very volatile: Its smell indicates it to be sulphureous, as also does the circumstance of turning silver black. They relieve rheumatisms. Other complaints also of very different natures have been removed or lessened by them.

The Hot Spring is about six miles from the Warm, is much smaller, and has been so hot as to have boiled an egg. Some believe its degree of heat to be lessened. It raises the mercury in Farenheit's thermometer to 112 degrees, which is fever heat. It sometimes relieves where the Warm Spring fails. Here are good accommodations for invalids. A fountain of uncommonly cold water, issuing within a few inches of its margin, gives it a singular appearance. Comparing the temperature of these with that of the hot springs of Kamschatka, of which Krachininnikow gives an account, the difference is very great, the latter raising the mercury to 200 degrees, which is

within 12 degrees of boiling water. These springs are very much resorted to, in spite of a total want of accommodation for the sick. Their waters are strongest in the hottest months, which occasions their being visited in July and August principally.

The Sweet Springs are in the county of Botetourt, at the eastern foot of the Allegany, about 42 miles from the warm springs. They are in the highest repute, and most resorted to. They are much less cold than common water, about 70° of Farenheit; the Warm Spring 98°; the Hot 110°. It is generally believed to be diminishing in heat. Having been found to relieve cases in which the others had been ineffectually tried, it is probable their composition is different. They are different also in their temperature, being as cold as common water; which is not mentioned, however, as a proof of a distinct impregnation. This is among the first sources of James River. It is a valuable mineral water, strongly impregnated with the carbonick acid. In Greenbriar is a sulphureous spring, useful as a mineral water.

On Patowmack River, in Berkley county, above the North Mountain, are medicinal springs, much more frequented than those of Augusta. Their powers, however, are less, the waters weakly mineralized, and scarcely warm. They were formerly more visited, because situated in a fertile, plentiful and populous country, provided with better accommodations, always safe from the Indians, and nearest to the more populous states.

In Louisa county, on the head waters of the South Anna branch of York River, are springs of some medicinal virtue. They are however not much used. There is a weak chalybeate at Richmond; and many others in various parts of the country, which are of too little worth, or of too little note to be enumerated, after those before mentioned.

We are told of a sulphur spring on Howard's Creek of Greenbriar. In the lower grounds of the Great Kanhawa, 7 miles above the mouth of Elk river, and 67 above that of the Kanhawa itself, is a hole in the earth, of the capacity of 30 or 40 gallons, from which issues constantly a bituminous vapour, in so strong a current, as to give to the sand about its orifice the motion which it has in a boiling spring. On presenting a lighted candle or torch within 18 inches of the hole, it flames up in a column of 18 inches diameter, and four or five feet in height, which sometimes burns out in 20 minutes, and at other times has been known to continue three days, and then has been left burning. The flame is unsteady, of the density of that of burning spirits, and smells like burning pit coal. Water sometimes collects in the bason, which is remarkably cold, and is kept in ebullition by the vapour issuing through it. If the vapour be fired in that state, the water soon becomes so warm that the hand cannot bear it, and evaporates wholly in a short time. This, with the circumjacent lands, was the property of General Washington and General Lewis. This burning spring is probably inflammable air or hydrogenous gas.

There is a similar one on Sandy River, the flame of which is a column of about 12 inches diameter, and three feet high. General Clarke kindled the vapour, staid about an hour, and left it burning.

A spring in the western parts of Virginia is extraordinary, called the Burning Spring. It was known a long time to the hunters. They frequently encamped by it for the sake of obtaining good water. Some of them arrived late one night, and, after making a fire, took a brand to light them to the spring. On their coming to it, some fire dropped from the brand, and in an instant the water was in a flame and so continued; over which they could roast their meat as soon as by the greatest fire. It was left in this situation, and continued burning for three months without intermission. The fire was extinguished by excluding the air from it, or smothering it. The water taken from it into a vessel will not burn. This shows that the fire is occasioned by nothing more than a vapour that ascends from the water. There are two springs high up the Patowmack, one of which has about the same degree of heat, as blood running from the veins. It is much frequented by people who have lost their health. The waters are drank with freedom, and also serve as a hot bath, by which much good has been experienced. The other spring, issuing from the same fountain, a little farther off, is as remarkable for its coldness, as the other for its heat, and differs from common springs in as many degrees.

The mention of uncommon springs leads to that of Syphon fountains. There is one of these near the intersection of lord Fairfax's boundary with the North Mountain, not far from Brock's Gap, on the stream of which is a grist-mill, which grinds two bushels of grain at every flood of the spring. Another near the Cow pasture river, a mile and a half below its confluence with the Bull pasture river, and 16 or 17 miles from the Hot Springs, which intermits once in every 12 hours. One also near the mouth of the North Holston.

After these may be mentioned the Natural Well, on the lands of a Mr. Lewis, in Frederick county; it is somewhat larger than a common well; the water rises in it as near the surface of the earth as in the neighbouring artificial wells, and is of a depth as yet unknown. It is said there is a current in it tending sensibly downwards. If this be true, it probably feeds some fountain, of which it is the natural reservoir, distinguished from others, like that of Madison's cave, by being accessible. It is used with a bucket and windlass, as an ordinary well.

Salt springs have been found in Greenbriar. By digging, plenty of very strong salt water is found. Near Kanhawa court-house there is a salt spring, from which considerable salt has been made.

Militia.] The militia of this state, consisting of every able bodied freeman between the ages of 18 and 45, is divided into four grand divisions, each of which is commanded by a major-general; 19 brigades, each commanded by a brigadier general; making in the whole 108 regiments of infantry, four regiments of cavalry, and four regiments of artillery; each regiment is composed of two battalions, and commanded by a lieutenant-colonel commandant and two majors. The governour is head of the military as well as civil power. The law requires every militia man to provide himself with the arms usual in the regular service; but this injunction has always been indifferently complied with. In the lower country are few

arms; in the middle country a fourth or fifth part of them may have such firelocks as they had provided to destroy the noxious animals which infest their farms; and on the western side of the Blue Ridge they are generally armed with rifles.

This state lately has made great exertions to arm her militia. Besides purchasing to a large amount, she has erected a very extensive and admirable manufactory of arms at Richmond; the largest, it is believed, in America, and excelled by few in the old world. This is supplied with iron, coal, &c. by water. The materials being landed at the very doors of the building, which is situated on the margin of the canal, where it derives an inexhaustible supply of water by which the greater part of the labour is performed.*

The intersection of Virginia by so many navigable rivers, renders it almost incapable of defence. As the land will not support a great number of people, a force cannot soon be collected to repel a sudden invasion.

Chief Towns.] Virginia is not divided into townships, like the northern states. The towns are small, owing probably to the intersection of the country by navigable rivers, which brings the trade to the doors of the inhabitants, and prevents the necessity of their going in quest of it to a distance. The towns, or more properly villages or hamlets, are as follows: On James River and its waters, Norfolk, Portsmouth, Hampton, Suffolk, Smithfield, Williamsburg, Petersburg, Richmond, the seat of government, Manchester, Charlottesville, New-London. On York River and its waters, York, Newcastle, Hanover. On Rappahannock, Urbanna, Port Royal, Fredericksburg, Falmouth. On Patowmack and its waters, Dumfries, Colchester, Alexandria, Winchester, Staunton, Lexington.

There are places, at which, like some of the foregoing, the laws have said there shall be towns; but nature has said there shall not; and they remain unworthy of enumeration. Norfolk and Portsmouth will certainly become the emporium of all the bulky articles imported from foreign countries, from whence they will be distributed for retail to all the towns in the state, as well as those in North-Carolina south of Newbern; as a canal is now cutting from Pasquetank river which empties into Albemarle sound. The canal is supplied with water not by the sound or its rivers, but by Drummond's pond, a lake in the Dismal Swamp. This canal will be 16 miles in length, through a level, low country: it will empty the waters of Albemarle sound, which are rather higher than those of Elizabeth river in Virginia, about 9 miles from Portsmouth, which lies opposite to Norfolk, on the same side of Elizabeth river with the canal. To the place where the canal empties into Elizabeth, merchant vessels of the largest size may go within a mile; here the water will be continually fresh, so much so that the worm, the greatest enemy to the shipping of the harbour of Norfolk and Portsmouth, and which does great injury in the months of July, August and September, will not affect them; if they run up near the canal.

* See Governour Monroe's communication to the legislature, Dec. 6, 1802.

Norfolk is the principal town in Virginia, and contained in 1800, 6900 inhabitants.

Petersburg now receives a great portion of the tobacco which it ships from North-Carolina, and the counties of Virginia bordering on the North-Carolina line. When the canal is completed, and the little and great falls of the Roanoke, and those of Dan and Staunton rivers, are cleared, not only the produce of North-Carolina, which now goes to Petersburg, will be diverted to the Norfolk and Portsmouth channel, but the produce of the valuable counties, on Dan and Staunton rivers in Virginia, will naturally pursue the same course, as the water carriage will be much cheaper than a land one of a hundred miles, which is now imposed on them; but at Norfolk and Portsmouth they will certainly procure their goods cheaper, being the fountain head, than from any of the interior sources.

As an evidence of the importance of these towns to the United States, Congress have by law directed that the port and harbour of Norfolk and Portsmouth should be fortified. Two strong batteries have been completed, and another is said to be in contemplation; when completed, it is supposed the harbour will be perfectly secure from any depredation from naval operations alone; a forty-four gun frigate has lately been built at that part of Portsmouth called Gosport, which was formerly the king of Great-Britain's rendezvous for his ship's of war, for the protection of the trade of the middle colonies. It is supposed to be one of the best harbours in the world; it begins at the mouth of the south branch of Elizabeth river, which is not a quarter of a mile over, and has six fathoms of water within thirty yards of the shore.

Secondary to this place, are the towns at the head of the tide waters, viz. Petersburg on Appotmattox, Richmond on James River, Newcastle on York river, Fredericksburg on Rappahannock, and Alexandria on Patowmack. From these the distribution will be to subordinate situations of the country. Accidental circumstances, however, may control the indications of nature, and in no instances more frequently than in the rise and fall of towns.

To the foregoing general account, we add the following more particular descriptions.

Alexandria, in the district of Columbia, stands on the south bank of Pawtomack river in Fairfax county. Its situation is elevated and pleasant. The soil is clay. The original settlers, anticipating its future growth and importance, laid out the streets upon the plan of Philadelphia. It contains about 700 houses, many of which are handsomely built, and about 5000 inhabitants. This town, upon opening the navigation of Patowmack river, and in consequence of its vicinity to the city of Washington, will probably be one of the most thriving commercial places on the continent.

Mount Vernon, the celebrated seat of the late President Washington, is pleasantly situated on the Virginia bank of the river Patowmack, where it is nearly two miles wide, and is about 280 miles from the sea, and 127 from Point Look Out, at the mouth of the river. It is nine miles below Alexandria, and four above the beautiful seat of the late Col. Fairfax, called Bellevoir. The area of the mount is 200

feet above the surface of the river; and, after furnishing a lawn of five acres in front, and about the same in rear of the buildings, falls off rather abruptly on those two quarters. On the north end it subsides gradually into extensive pasture grounds; while on the south it slopes more steeply, in a shorter distance, and terminates with the coach-house, stables, vineyard and nurseries. On either wing is a thick grove of different flowering forest trees. Parallel with them, on the land side, are two spacious gardens, into which one is led by two serpentine gravel walks, planted with weeping willows and shady shrubs. The mansion house itself (though much embellished by, yet not made perfectly satisfactory to, the chaste taste of the late possessor) appears venerable and convenient. The superb banqueting-room was finished after he returned home from the army. A lofty portico, 96 feet in length, supported by eight pillars, has a pleasing effect when viewed from the water; the whole assemblage of the green-house, school-house, offices and servant's halls, when seen from the land side, bears a resemblance to a rural village; especially as the lands on that side are laid out somewhat in the form of English gardens, in meadows and grass-grounds, ornamented with little copses, circular clumps and single trees. A small park on the margin of the river, where the English fallow deer and the American wild deer are seen through the thickets, alternately with the vessels as they are sailing along, add a romantick and picturesque appearance to the whole scenery. On the opposite side of a small creek to the northward, an extensive plain, exhibiting corn-fields and cattle grazing, affords in summer a luxuriant landscape; while the blended verdure of woodlands and cultivated declivities, on the Maryland shore, variegates the prospect in a charming manner. Such are the philosophick shades to which the late commander in chief of the American armies retired, from the tumultuous scenes of a busy world, and which he left to dignify, by his unequalled abilities, the most important office in the gift of his fellow-citizens; and here he died, Dec. 14, 1799, and left his country in tears.

In Albemarle county is Monticello, the seat of President Jefferson. The summit of the mount, where his house stands, is 500 feet above the circumjacent country. The prospect is extensive and charming. Mr. Jefferson has more than 1,100 acres of cultivated land. In 1797, he had 320 acres of wheat, 160 of corn, 320 of clover, 320 of peas and potatoes, and 120 workmen. He has a manufactory of nails: his negro boys make a ton of nails in a month.

Fredericksburg, in the county of Spotsylvania, is situated on the south side of Rappahannock river, 110 miles from its mouth; and contains about 200 houses, principally on one street, which runs nearly parallel with the river, and 1,500 inhabitants.

Richmond, in the county of Henrico, is the present seat of government, and stands on the north side of James River, just at the foot of the falls, and contained, in 1795, between 4 and 500 houses, and nearly 4000 inhabitants. Part of the houses are built upon the margin of the river, convenient for business; the rest are upon a hill which overlooks the lower part of the town, and commands an extensive prospect of the river and adjacent country. The new houses are well built,

A large state-house or capitol, has lately been erected on the hill. The lower part of the town is divided by a creek, over which is a convenient bridge. A bridge between 3 and 400 yards in length, has lately been thrown across James River, at the foot of the fall, by Col. Mayo. That part from Manchester to the island is built on 15 boats. From the island to the rocks was formerly a floating bridge of rafts; but Col. Mayo has now built it of framed log piers, filled with stones. From the rocks to the landing at Richmond, the bridge is continued on framed piers filled with stones. This bridge connects Richmond with Manchester; and as the passengers pay toll, it produces a handsome revenue to Col. Mayo, who is the sole proprietor.

The falls above the bridge are seven miles in length. A noble canal is completed on the north side of the river, which terminates in a bason of about two acres, in the town of Richmond. From this bason to the wharves in the river, will be a land carriage of about a mile. The opening of this canal promises the addition of much wealth to Richmond.

Petersburg, 25 miles southward of Richmond, stands on the south side of Appomattox river, and contained in 1795 about 3000 inhabitants, and upwards of 300 houses, in two divisions; one is upon a clay cold soil, and is very dirty, the other upon a plain of sand or loam. There is no regularity and very little elegance in Petersburg; it is merely a place of business. Like Richmond, Williamsburg, Alexandria and Norfolk, it is a corporation; and what is singular, Petersburg city comprehends a part of three counties. The celebrated Indian queen, Pocahontas, from whom descended the Randolph and Bowling families, formerly resided at this place.

The trade of Petersburg is very considerable. From the inspectors books it appears, that upwards of 20,000 hhds. of tobacco have annually, for ten years, preceding 1796, been received here, and 60,000 bbls. of flour. Add to these 12,000 barrels of bread, 3,000bbls. Indian meal, 60,000 bushels of wheat, 30,000 do. Indian corn, 2,000 do. peas, 2,000 bbls. pork, 500 do. beef, 200,000lb. bacon, 500 kegs of hog's lard, 3,000 do. butter, 20,000lbs. tallow, 6,000lbs. bees-wax, 100 tons of hemp, 10,000 deer-skins; amounting, in total value, to 1,389,300 dollars; besides peach and apple brandy, whiskey, &c. to a considerable amount. The foregoing estimate, said to have been made by respectable merchants in this place, exhibits the great commercial importance of Petersburg.

Williamsburgh is 60 miles eastward of Richmond, situated between two creeks; one falling into James, the other into York river. The distance of each landing place is about a mile from the town. During the regal government, it was proposed to unite these creeks by a canal passing through the centre of the town; but the removal of the seat of government rendered it no longer an object of importance. It contains about 200 houses, many of them going to decay, and has about 1,400 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in parallel streets, with a pleasant square in the centre, of about ten acres, through which runs the principal street east and west, about a mile in length, and more than 100 feet wide. At the ends of this street are two

publick buildings, the college and capitol. Besides these there is an Episcopal church, a prison, a court-house, a magazine, now occupied as a market, and a hospital for lunaticks, calculated to accommodate between 20 and 30 patients in separate rooms or cells. The house is neatly kept, and the patients well attended; but convalescents have not sufficient room for free air and exercise, without making their escape. Not far from the square stood the governour's house, or palace as it was called. This was burnt during the war, while it was occupied as an American hospital. The house of the president of the college, occupied also as an hospital by the French army, shared the same fate. This has since been rebuilt at the expense of the French government. In the capital is a large marble statue, in the likeness of Narbone Berkley, Lord Botetourt, a man distinguished for his love of piety, literature and good government, and formerly governour of Virginia. It was erected at the expense of the state, some time since the year 1771. The capitol is little better than in ruins, and this elegant statue is exposed to the rudeness of negroes and boys, and is shamefully defaced. A late act of the assembly authorises the pulling down one half of this building, to defray the charge of keeping the other half in repair.

Yorktown, 13 miles eastward from Williamsburg, and 14 from Monday's Point at the mouth of the river, is a place of about 100 houses, situated on the south side of York river, and contains about 700 inhabitants. It was rendered famous by the capture of lord Cornwallis and his army, on the 19th of October, 1781, by the united forces of France and America.

Lexington stands on the post-road, one mile west of the north branch of James River. It is the county town of Rockbridge, is a flourishing place, and has an elegant brick meeting-house, a court-house, a gaol, and about 80 dwelling-houses. The federal courts for the western district are held here. The river is navigable to this place for boats of 5 or 6 tons.

Colleges, Academies, &c.] The college of William and Mary was founded in the time of King William and Queen Mary, who granted to it 20,000 acres of land, and a penny a pound duty on certain tobaccos exported from Virginia and Maryland, which had been levied by the statute of 25 Car. 2. The assembly also gave it, by temporary laws, a duty on liquors imported, and skins and furs exported. From these resources it received upwards of £3,000. The buildings are of brick, sufficient for an indifferent accommodation of perhaps 100 students. By its charter it was to be under the government of 20 visitors, who were to be its legislators, and to have a president and six professors, who were incorporated. It was allowed a representative in the general assembly. Under this charter, a professorship of of the Greek and Latin languages, a professorship of mathematicks, one of moral philosophy, and two of divinity, were established. To these were annexed, for a sixth professorship, a considerable donation by a Mr. Boyle of England, for the instruction of the Indians, and their conversion to christianity. This was called the professorship of Brafferton, from an estate of that name in England, purchased with the monies given. The admission of the learners of

Latin and Greek filled the college with children. This rendering it disagreeable and degrading to young gentlemen already prepared for entering on the sciences, they were discouraged from resorting to it, and thus the schools for mathematicks and moral philosophy, which might have been of some service, became of very little. The revenues too were exhausted in accommodating those who came only to acquire the rudiments of science. After the revolution, the visitors, having no power to change those circumstances in the constitution of the college which were fixed by the charter, and being therefore confined in the number of professorships, undertook to change the objects of the professorships. They excluded the two schools for divinity, and that for the Greek and Latin languages, and substituted others; so that in 1787 they stood thus—A professorship for law and police—anatomy and medicine—natural philosophy and mathematicks—moral philosophy, the law of nature and nations, the fine arts—modern languages—for the Brafferton. There are now six professorships, one of moral philosophy, natural philosophy and the belles lettres; one of mathematicks, one of law, one of modern languages, and two of humanity. The philosophical apparatus is complete, and the library extensive.

Measures have been taken to increase the number of professorships, as well for the purpose of subdividing those already instituted, as of adding others for other branches of science. To the professorships usually established in the universities of Europe, it would seem proper to add one for the ancient languages and literature of the North, on account of their connection with our own language, laws, customs, and history. The purposes of the Brafferton institution would be better answered by maintaining a perpetual mission among the Indian tribes; the object of which, besides instructing them in the principles of Christianity, as the founder requires, should be to collect their traditions, laws, customs, languages, and other circumstances which might lead to a discovery of their relation to one another, or descent from other nations. When those objects are accomplished with one tribe, the missionary might pass on to another. The grammar school, which was for a time discontinued, has been revived in the college. There are about 50 or 60 boys in this school, who are instructed by two professors, and an usher. The annual expense of their board, washing and tuition, is about twenty guineas.

Colleges are established, and in a respectable situation, in Prince Edward county, called "Hamden Sidney college," and at Lexington, called Washington college. This seminary, by the liberality of individuals, has a library, philosophical apparatus, and buildings to accommodate 50 or 60 students. In 1796 it was endowed by General Washington with one hundred shares in the James River company. These shares, which are estimated at 6 or 8 thousand pounds currency, it is expected will soon produce sufficient to increase the library and buildings, and to maintain a competent number of masters and professors.

There are several academies in Virginia—one at Alexandria—one at Norfolk—one at Hanover, and others in other places.

Since the declaration of independence, the laws of Virginia have been revised by a committee appointed for the purpose, who have reported their work to the assembly; one object of this revisal was, to diffuse knowledge more generally through the mass of the people. The bill for this purpose proposes to lay off every county into small districts of five or six miles square, called hundreds, and in each of them to establish a school for teaching reading, writing and arithmetick. The tutor to be supported by the hundred, and all persons in it entitled to send their children three years gratis, and as much longer as they please, paying for it. These schools to be under a visitor, who is annually to choose the boy of best genius in the school, of those whose parents are too poor to give them further education, and to send him forward to one of the grammar schools, of which twenty are proposed to be erected in different parts of the country, for teaching Greek, Latin, Geography, and the higher branches of numerical arithmetick. Of the boys thus sent in any one year, trial is to be made at the grammar schools one or two years, and the best genius of the whole selected and continued six years, and the residue dismissed; by this means twenty of the best geniuses will be raked from the rubbish annually, and instructed, at the publick expense, so far as the grammar schools go. At the end of 6 years' instruction, one half are to be discontinued, (from among whom the grammar schools will probably be supplied with future masters) and the other half who are to be chosen for the superiority of their parts and disposition, are to be sent and continued three years in the study of such sciences as they shall choose, at William and Mary college, the plan of which is proposed to be enlarged, as will be hereafter explained, and extended to all the useful sciences. The ultimate result of the whole scheme of education would be the teaching all the children of the state reading, writing, and common arithmetick; turning out ten annually of superior genius, well taught in Greek, Latin, Geography, and the higher branches of arithmetick; turning out ten others, annually, of still superior parts, who, to those branches of learning, shall have added such of the sciences as their genius shall have led them to; the furnishing to the wealthier part of the people convenient schools, at which their children may be educated, at their own expense. The general objects of this law are to provide an education adapted to the years, to the capacity, and the condition of every one, and directed to their freedom and happiness. Specifick details were not proper for the law. These must be the business of the visitors entrusted with its execution. The first stage of this education being the schools of the hundreds, wherein the great mass of the people will receive their instruction, the principal foundations of future order will be laid here. The first elements of morality may be instilled into their minds; such as, when further developed as their judgments advance in strength, may teach them how to promote their own greatest happiness, by shewing them that it does not depend on the condition of life in which they are placed, but is always the result of a good conscience, good health, occupation, and freedom in all just pursuits. Those whom either the wealth of their parents or the adoption of the state shall destine to higher degrees of learning, will go on to the grammar schools,

which constitute the next stage, there to be instructed in the languages. As soon as they are of a sufficient age, it is supposed they will be sent on from the grammar schools to the university, which constitutes the third and last stage, there to study those sciences which may be adapted to their views. By that part of the plan which prescribes the selection of the youths of genius from among the classes of the poor, the state will avail itself of those talents which nature has sown as liberally among the poor as the rich, but which perish without use, if not sought for and cultivated. But of all the views of this law, none is more important, none more legitimate, than that of rendering the people the safe, as they are the ultimate, guardians of their own liberty. This is an ingenious, but probably an impracticable, theory.

Religion.] The first settlers in this country were emigrants from England, of the English church. They retained full possession of the country about a century, when other denominations of Christians began to settle here, and have since increased to a majority of the inhabitants.

The present denominations of Christians in Virginia are, Presbyterians, who are the most numerous, and inhabit the western parts of the state; Episcopalians, who are the most ancient settlers, and occupy the eastern and first settled parts of the state. Intermingled with these are great numbers of Baptists, Methodists and Friends.

Character, Manners and Customs.] Virginia has produced some of the most distinguished and influential men that have been active in effecting the two late grand and important revolutions in America. Her political and military character will rank among the first in the page of history. Some of the most illustrious characters that America can boast, of those who live or who are destined to live on the records of history, have derived their birth from this state. But the disparity of fortunes and of intellectual acquirements is very great here, and it is to be regretted, that the mass of the people are unenlightened. Industry is not so general as to the northward of them; dissipation in various forms, has been more prevalent in this state, than perhaps in any other in the Union; but severe laws have been enacted against some vices, which have checked their destructive effects.

Constitution, Courts and Laws.] The executive powers are lodged in the hands of a governour, chosen annually, and incapable of acting more than three years in seven. He is assisted by a council of eight members. The judiciary powers are divided among several courts as will hereafter be explained. Legislation is exercised by two houses of assembly, the one called the house of delegates, composed of two members from each county, chosen annually by the citizens, possessing an estate for life in 100 acres of uninhabited land, or 25 acres of land with a house on it, or in a house or lot in some town; the other called the senate, consisting of 24 members chosen quadrennially by the same electors, who for this purpose are distributed into 24 districts. The concurrence of both houses is necessary to the passing of a law. They have the appointment of the governour and council, the judges of the superior courts, auditors, attorney-general, treasurer, and register of the land office.

This constitution was the first that was formed in any of the United States.

There are three superior courts, to which appeals lie from the courts below, viz. the high court of chancery, the general court, and court of admiralty. The first and second of these receive appeals from the county courts, and also have original jurisdiction where the subject of controversy is of the value of ten pounds sterling, or where it concerns the title or bounds of land. The jurisdiction of the admiralty is original altogether. The high court of chancery is composed of three judges, the general court of five, and the court of admiralty of three. The two first hold their sessions at Richmond at stated times, the chancery twice in the year, and the general court twice for business, civil and criminal, and twice more for criminal only. The court of admiralty sits at Williamsburg whenever a controversy arises.

There is one supreme court, called the Court of Appeals, composed of the judges of the three superior courts, assembling twice a year at stated times at Richmond. This court receives appeals in all civil cases from each of the superior courts, and determines them finally. But it has no original jurisdiction.

All publick accounts are settled by an auditor consisting of three members, appointed by the general assembly, any two of whom may act. But an individual, dissatisfied with the determination of that board, may carry his case into the proper superior court.

In 1661, the laws of England were expressly adopted by an act of the assembly of Virginia, except so far as "a difference of condition" render them inapplicable. To these were added a number of acts of assembly, passed during the monarchy, and ordinances of convention, and acts of assembly since the establishment of the republick. The following variations from the British model are worthy of notice.

Debtors unable to pay their debts, and making faithful delivery of their whole effects, are released from their confinement, and their persons forever discharged from restraint for such previous debt: but any property they may afterwards aquire will be subject to their creditors. The poor, unable to support themselves, are maintained by an assessment on the titheable persons in their parish. A foreigner of any nation, not in open war, becomes naturalized by removing to the state to reside, and taking an oath of fidelity; and thereby acquires every right of a native citizen. Slaves pass by descent and dower as lands do. Slaves as well as lands were entailable during the monarchy; but, by an act of the first republican assembly, all donees in tail, present and future, were vested with the absolute dominion of the entailed subject. Gaming debts are made void, and monies actually paid to dicharge such debts (if they exceed 40 shillings) may be recovered by the payer within three months, or by any other person afterwards. Tobacco, flour, beef, pork, tar, pitch and turpentine, must be inspected by persons publickly appointed, before they can be exported.

In 1785, the assembly enacted, that no man should be compelled to support any religious worship, place or minister whatsoever, nor be

enforced, restrained, molested or burdened in his body or goods, nor otherwise suffer on account of his religious opinions or belief; but that all men should be free to profess, and by argument to maintain their opinion in matters of religion; and that the same should in no wise diminish, enlarge or affect their civil capacities.

In October, 1786, an act was passed by the assembly prohibiting the importation of slaves into the commonwealth, upon penalty of the forfeiture of the sum of 1000l. for every slave. And every slave imported contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act, becomes free.

Manufactures and Commerce.] Befor the war, the inhabitants of this state paid but little attention to the manufacture of their own clothing. It has been thought they used to import as much as *seven eighths* of their own clothing, and that they now manufacture *three quarters* of it. We have before mentioned that considerable quantities of iron are manufactured in this state. North-west of the Blue Ridge are numerous manufactories of cast and wrought iron. To these, we may add the manufacture of lead; besides which, they have few others of consequence. The people are much attached to agriculture, and prefer foreign manufactures.

Before the war, this state exported, *communibus annis*, according to the best information that could be obtained, as follows:

TABLE.

Articles.	Quantity.	Amt. in dolls.
Tobacco,	55,000 hhds. of 1000lb.	1,650,000
Wheat	800,000 bushels	666,666⅔
Indian corn,	600,000 do.	200,000
Shipping,	———	100,000
Masts, planks, scantling, shingles, staves,	———	66,666⅔
Tar, pitch, turpentine,	30,0000 barrels	40,000
Peltry, viz. skins of deer, beavers, otters, musk-rats, racoons, foxes,	180 hhds. of 600lb.	42,000
Pork,	4,000 barrels	400,000
Flax-seed, hemp, cotton,	——	8,000
Pit coal, pig iron,	——	6,666⅔
Peas,	5,000 bushels	3,333⅓
Beef,	1,000 barrels	3,333⅓
Sturgeon, white shad, herring,	——	3,333⅓
Brandy from peaches and apples, and whiskey,	——.	1,666⅔
Horses,	——	1,666⅔
		2,833,333⅓

The amount of exports from this state in the year succeeding October 1, 1790, consisting chiefly of articles mentioned in the foregoing table, was 3,131,865 dollars. About 40,000 hogsheads of tobacco only were exported this year. The value of exports the 5 following years, was about the same. In 1801, the exports amounted to

6,483,028 dollars; in 1804, to 5,790,001 dollars. Three quarters of the produce of this state is exported by the cities of New-York and Baltimore.

In the year 1758, this state exported 70,000 hogsheads of tobacco, which was the greatest quantity ever produced in this country in one year. But its culture has fast declined since the commencement of the war, and that of wheat taken its place. The price which it commands at market will not enable the planter to cultivate it. Were the supply still to depend on Virginia and Maryland alone, as its culture becomes more difficult, this price would rise, so as to enable the planter to surmount those difficulties, and to live. But the western country on the Missisippi, and the Midlands of Georgia, having fresh and fertile lands in abundance, and a hotter sun, are able to undersell these two states, and will oblige them in time to abandon the raising of tobacco altogether. And a happy obligation for them it will be. It is a culture productive of infinite wretchedness. Those employed in it are in a continued state of exertion beyond the powers of nature to support. Little food of any kind is raised by them; so that the men and animals on these farms are badly fed, and the earth is rapidly impoverished. The cultivation of wheat is the reverse in every circumstance. Besides clothing the earth with herbage, and preserving its fertility, it feeds the labourers plentifully, requires from them only a moderate toil, except in the season of harvest, raises great numbers of animals for food and service, and diffuses plenty and happiness among the whole. It is easier to make a hundred bushels of wheat than a thousand weight of tobacco, and they are worth more when made.

It is not easy to say what are the articles either of necessity, comfort or luxury, which cannot be raised here, as every thing hardier than the olive, and as hardy as the fig, may be raised in the open air. Sugar, coffee and tea, indeed, are not between these limits; and habit having placed them among the necessaries of life with the wealthy, as long as these habits remain, they must go for them to those countries which are able to furnish them.

History.] We have already given a brief historical account of the first settlement of Virginia, till the arrival of Lord Delaware, in 1610. His arrival with a fresh supply of settlers and provisions, revived the drooping spirits of the former company, and gave permanency and respectability to the settlement.

In April, 1613, Mr. John Rolf, a worthy young gentleman, was married to Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, the famous Indian chief. This connection, which was very agreeable both to the English and Indians, was the foundation of a friendly and advantageous commerce between them.

In 1616, Mr. Rolf, with his wife Pocahontas, visited England, where she was treated with that attention and respect which she had merited by her important services to the colony in Virginia. She died the year following at Gravesend, in the 22d year of her age, just as she was about to embark for America. She had embraced the Christian religion; and in her life and death evidenced the sincerity of her profession. She left a little son, who, having received his edu-

cation in England, came over to Virginia, where he lived and died in affluence and honour, leaving behind him an only daughter. Her descendants are among the most respectable families in Virginia.

Tomocomo, a sensible Indian, brother-in-law to Pocahontas, accompanied her to England; and was directed by Powhatan to bring him an exact account of the numbers and strength of the English. For this purpose, when he arrived at Plymouth, he took a long stick, intending to cut a notch in it for every person he should see. This he soon found impracticable, and threw away his stick. On his return, being asked by Powhatan, how many people there were, he is said to have replied, "Count the stars in the sky, the leaves on the trees, and the sands on the sea shore; for such is the number of the people in England."

In pursuance of the authorities given to the company by their several charters, and more especially of that part in the charter of 1609, which authorised them to establish a form of government, they, on the 24th of July, 1621, by charter under their common seal, declared, That from thenceforward there should be two supreme councils in Virginia, the one to be called the council of state, to be placed and displaced by the treasurer, council in England, and company, from time to time, whose office was to be that of assisting and advising the governour; the other to be called the general assembly, to be convened by the governour once yearly, or oftener, which was to consist of the council of state, and two burgesses out of every town, hundred, or plantation, to be respectively chosen by the inhabitants. In this, all matters were to be decided by the greater part of the votes present; reserving to the governour a negative voice; and they were to have power to treat, consult and conclude on all emergent occasions concerning the publick weal, and to make laws for the behoof and government of the colony, imitating and following the laws and policy of England as nearly as might be: provided that these laws should have no force till ratified in a general quarter court of the company in England, and returned under their common seal, and declaring that after the government of the colony should be well framed and settled, no orders of the council in England should bind the colony unless ratified by the said general assembly. The king and company quarrelled, and by a mixture of law and force, the latter were ousted of all their rights, without retribution, after having expended 100,000l. in establishing the colony, without the smallest aid from government. King James suspended their powers by proclamation of July 15, 1624, and Charles I. took the government into his own hands. Both sides had their partizans in the colony; but in truth, the people of the colony in general thought themselves little concerned in the dispute. There being three parties interested in these several charters, what passed between the first and the second it was thought could not affect the third. If the king seized on the powers of the company, they only passed into other hands, without increase or diminution, while the rights of the people remained as they were. But they did not remain so long. The northern parts of their country were granted away to the lords Baltimore and Fairfax, the first of these obtaining also the rights of separate jurisdiction and government. And, in

1650, the parliament, considering itself as standing in the place of their deposed king, and as having succeeded to all his powers, without as well as within the realm, began to assume a right over the colonies, passing an act for inhibiting their trade with foreign nations. This succession to the exercise of the kingly authority gave the first colour for parliamentary interference with the colonies, and produced that fatal precedent which they continued to follow after they had retired in other respects, within their proper functions. When this colony, therefore, which still maintained its opposition to Cromwell and the parliament, was induced, in 1651, to lay down their arms, they previously secured their most essential rights by a solemn convention.

This convention, entered into with arms in their hands, they supposed had secured the ancient limits of their country, its free trade, its exemption from taxation but by their own assembly, and exclusion of military force from among them. Yet in every of these points was this convention violated by subsequent kings and parliaments, and other infractions of their constitution, equally dangerous, committed. The general assembly, which was composed of the council of state and burgesses, sitting together and deciding by plurality of voices, was split into two houses, by which the council obtained a separate negative on their laws. Appeals from their supreme court, which had been fixed by law in their general assembly, were arbitrarily revoked to England, to be there heard before the king and council. Instead of 400 miles on the sea-coast, they were reduced, in the space of 30 years, to about 100 miles. Their trade with foreigners was totally suppressed, and when carried to Great-Britain, was there loaded with imposts. It is unnecessary, however, to glean up the several instances of injury, as scattered through American and British history; and the more especially, as, by passing on to the accession of the present king, we shall find specimens of them all, aggravated, multiplied, and crowded within a small compass of time, so as to evince a fixed design of considering the rights of the people, whether natural, conventional or chartered, as mere nullities. The colonies were taxed internally; their essential interests sacrificed to individuals in Great-Britain; their legislatures suspended; charters annulled: trials by juries taken away; their persons subjected to transportation across the Atlantick, and to trial before foreign judicatories; their supplications for redress thought beneath answer; themselves published as cowards in the councils of their mother country and courts of Europe; armed troops sent among them to enforce submission to these violences; and actual hostilities commenced against them. No alternative was presented but resistance, or unconditional submission. Between these could be no hesitation. They closed in the appeal to arms. They declared themselves independent states. They confederated together into one great republick; thus securing to every state the benefit of a union of their whole force. They fought—they conquered—and obtained an honourable and glorious peace.

*List of Presidents, and Governours of Virginia, from its first Settlement to the Year 1624.**

Edward Maria Wingfield, from	May,	1607, to	Sept.	1607.
John Ratcliffe,	Sept.	1607,	July,	1608.
Mat. Scrivener, *Vice-President*,	July,	1608,	Sept.	1608.
John Smith,	Sept.	1608,	Sept.	1609.
George Percy, *Governour*,	Sept.	1609,	May,	1610.
Sir Thomas Gates,	May,	1610,	June,	1610.
Lord Delaware,	June,	1610,	March,	1611.
George Percy,	March,	1611,	May,	1611.
Sir Thomas Dale,	May,	1611,	Aug.	1611.
Sir Thomas Gates,	August,	1611,		1614.
Sir Thomas Dale,		1614,		1616.
Sir George Yeardly,		1616,		1617.
Samuel Argall,		1617,		1619.
George Yeardly,		1619,	Nov.	1621.
Sir Francis Wyat,	Nov.	1621,		1624.

INDIANA.

INDIANA, so called, is a valuable tract of land lying on the Ohio river, in the state of Virginia, ceded to William Trent and twenty-two others, by the Six Nations and the Shawanese, Delaware and Huron tribes, as a compensation for the losses they had sustained by the depredations of the latter, in the year 1763. This cession was made in a congress of the representatives of the Six Nations, at Fort Stanwix, by an indenture, signed the 3d of November, 1768, witnessing, "That for and in consideration of £85,916 : 10 : 8, York currency, (the same being the amount of the goods seized and taken by said Indians from said Trent, &c.) they did grant, bargain, sell, &c. to his majesty, his heirs and successors, for the only use of the said William Trent, &c. all that tract or parcel of land, beginning at the southerly side of the little Kanhaway creek, where it empties itself into the river Ohio; and running thence south-east to the Laurel Hill; thence along the Laurel Hill until it strikes the river Monongahela; thence down the stream of the said river, according to the several courses thereof, to the southern boundary line of the province of Pennsylvania; thence westwardly along the course of the said province boundary line as far as the same shall extend; thence by the same course to the river Ohio, and then down the river Ohio to the place of beginning, inclusively." This indenture was signed by six Indian chiefs, in presence of Sir William Johnson, Governour Franklin of New-Jersey, and the Commissioners from Virginia, Pennsylvania, &c. making twelve in the whole.

In 1782, a committee of Congress reported in favour of the claimants, and the business has since been adjusted.

* Smith brings down the history of Virginia no farther than this period. A list of the governours since, has not been received.

KENTUCKY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 250, Breadth 200	between	8° and 15° W. lon. / 36° 30′ and 39° 30′ N. lat.	50,000

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north-west by the river Ohio; west by Cumberland River; south by Tennessee; east, by Sandy River, and a line drawn due south from its source, till it strikes the northern boundary of North-Carolina.

Civil Divisions.] Kentucky, originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferson, has since been subdivided into 42, which follow:

Counties.	No. Inh. in 1800.	No. Slaves in 1800.	Chief Towns.	No. Inhab.
Fayette	12,233	3,786	Lexington	1,795
Jessamine	5,438	1,553	Nicholasville	23
Woodford	6,452	2,058	Versailles	172
Scott	7,659	1,787	Georgetown	348
Mason	11,405	1,603	Washington	570
Bracken	2,382	191	Augusta	143
Harrison	4,263	393	Cinthiana	87
Pendleton	1,573	239	Falmouth	40
Clerk	7,523	1,535	Winchester	130
Montgomery	6,999	749	Mount Sterling	83
Fleming	4,893	240	Flemingsburg	123
Floyd	472	29	Prestonsbury	6
Franklin	4,450	1,109	Frankfort	628
Gallatin	1,078	276	Port William	213
Boone	1,534	325		
Campbell	1,797	258	Newport	106
Henry	3,258	406		
Nicholas	2,863	322	Newtown	62
Bourbon	12,356	1,994	Paris	377
Mercer	9,242	2,169	Danville	280
Garrard	6,083	1,234	Lancaster	103
Nelson	9,087	1,735	Beardston	579
Bullit	3,446	944	Shepherdsville	96
Green	6,025	816	Greensburg	71
Cumberland		236		
Shelby	8,929	1,409	Shelbyville	262
Jefferson	8,395	2,330	Louisville	359
Lincoln	8,555	1,750	Stanford	66
Harden	3,597	310	Elizabethtown	56
Breckenridge	758	38	Hardensburg	49
Ohio	1,121	122	Hartford	73
Polaski	3,361	232		
Knox	1,119	62		

Henderson	1,263	340	Henderson	205
Livingston	2,787	444	Eddyville	69
Christian	2,318	297		
Logan	5,690	730	Russelville	127
Warren	4,645	417	Bowling-Green	41
Muhlenburg	1,517	116	Greenville	26
Barren	4,784	505		
Washington	8,887	1,382	Springfield	163
Madison	10,330	1,688	Richmond	110
Total 42	220,959	40,343		
Total 1790	73,677	12,430		
Increase in 10 years,	147,282	27,913		

An act passed January, 1799, apportioning representation, and laying off the state into senatorial districts, provides that there shall be 62 members in the representative, and 24 in the senatorial branch of the legislature.

Rivers.] The river Ohio washes the north-western side of Kentucky, in its whole extent. Its principal branches, which water this fertile tract of country, are Sandy, Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green, and Cumberland rivers. These again branch in various directions, into rivulets of different magnitudes, fertilizing the country in all its parts. At the bottoms of these water courses the lime-stone rock, which is common to this country, appears of a greyish colour; and where it lies exposed to the air, in its natural state, it looks like brown free-stone. On the banks of these rivers and rivulets, this stone has the appearance of fine marble, being of the same texture, and is found in the greatest plenty. In the dry season many of the rivers almost disappear. Their channels are ranges of lime-stone. The people are distressed for water for themselves and their cattle. They are obliged to dig 60 or 80 feet, (other accounts say about 25 feet on an average) through lime-stone, to find water. At the sources of the rivers, however, there is always good water.

Sandy, Licking and Kentucky rivers rise near each other in the Cumberland mountains. Of these, Sandy river only breaks through the mountain. This river constitutes a part of the eastern boundary of Kentucky.

Licking river runs in a north-west direction, upwards of 100 miles, and is about 100 yards broad at its mouth. In September, 1798, it had scarcely water enough at the Blue Licks, to turn a mill. On each side of this river is a salt spring, from which runs a stream impregnated with sulphur. From 800 gallons of water may be made a bushel of salt.

Kentucky is a very crooked river, and, after running a course of more than 200 miles, empties into the Ohio, by a mouth 150 yards broad.

Salt river rises at four different places near each other. The windings of this river are curious. The four branches, after a circuitous course round a fine tract of land, unite; and, after running about 15

miles, empty into the Ohio, 20 miles below the falls. Its general course is westward—its length about 90 miles—and at its mouth is 80 yards wide.

Green river pursues a western course upwards of 150 miles, and by a mouth 80 yards wide (or according to Imlay 200) falls into the Ohio, 120 miles below the rapids. On this river and south of it, there is no bed of lime-stone; it is generally found on the north side of the Kentucky. It is said to have more water in a dry season than any river in the state. It has seats for mills; and this country is settling rapidly on account of the ranges for cattle. It is said that 80 gallons from a spring on this river makes a bushel of salt.

Cumberland river interlocks with the northern branch of Kentucky, and rolling round the other arms of Kentucky, among the mountains in a southern course, 100 miles—then in a south-western course for above 200 more—then in a southern and south-western course for about 250 more, finds the Ohio, 413 miles below the falls. At Nashville this river is 200 yards broad, and at its mouth 300. The river, in about half its course, passes through Tennessee.

These rivers are navigable for boats almost to their sources, without rapids, for the greatest part of the year. The little rivulets which checker the country, begin to lessen in June, and quite disappear in the months of August, September and October. The autumnal rains, however, in November replenish them again. The method of getting a supply of water in the dry season is by sinking wells, which are easily dug, and afford excellent water. The want of water in autumn, is the great complaint. Mills that may be supplied with water eight months in a year, may be erected in a thousand different places. Wind mills and horse mills may supply the other four months.

Benson Creek is a bold and rapid stream. Lewis Creek is sometimes very deep. Pond river is from 30 to 40 yards wide. Brashears Creek is a considerable stream, as are N. and S. Elkhorn, which all fall into the Kentucky river.

The banks of the rivers are generally high and composed of lime-stone. After heavy rains, the water in the rivers rises from 10 to 30 feet.

Springs.] There are five noted salt springs or licks in this country: viz. the higher and lower Blue Springs, on Licking river, from some of which, it is said, issue streams of brinish water—the Big Bone lick, Drennon's licks; and Bullit's lick, at Saltsburgh. The last of these licks, though in low order, has supplied this country and Cumberland with salt at a dollar a bushel, and some is exported to the Illinois country. The method of procuring water from these licks, is by sinking wells from 30 to 40 feet deep. The water drawn from these wells is more strongly impregnated with salt, than the water from the sea.

Face of the Country, Soil and Produce.] This country, generally, lies upon a bed of lime-stone, which is commonly about eight feet below the surface, except in the vallies, where the soil is much thinner. A tract of about 20 miles wide, along the banks of the Ohio, is hilly, broken land, interspersed with many fertile spots. The rest of the country is agreeably uneven, gently ascending and descen-

ding at no great distance. The angles of ascent are from eight to twenty-four degrees, and sometimes more. The vallies in common are very narrow, and the soil in them is very thin, and of an inferior quality; and that along the ascending ground is frequently not much better; for where you see a tree blown up, you find the roots clinging to the upper parts of the rock. The soil on these agreeable ascents (for they cannot be called hills) is sufficiently deep, as is evident from the size of the trees. The soil is either black, or tinged with a lighter or deeper vermillion, or is of the colour of dark ashes. In many places there are appearances of potters' clay, and coal in abundance. The country promises to be well supplied with wholesome, well tasted water. In Nelson county, north-west of Rolling fork, a branch of Salt river, is a tract of about 40 miles square, mostly barren, interspersed with plains and strips of good land, which are advantageous situations for raising cattle, as the neigbouring barrens, as they are improperly styled, are covered with grass, and afford good pasturage. The lands east of Nolin creek, a branch of Green river, are in general of an inferior quality; but the banks of Green river afford many desirable situations.

Toward the head waters of Kentucky river, which interlock with the waters of Cumberland and Sandy rivers, and the whole country eastward and southward as far as the Holston river, is broken and mountanious; and from the description given by hunters, it has been much doubted whether it would ever be practicable to make a passable road from Kentucky across to Winchester, in Virginia, on the east side of the mountains, which, on a straight line, is not perhaps more than 400 miles, and the way now travelled is 600. This doubt, however, is now removed, and a company have lately undertaken to cut a road (it is thought a waggon road may be made) from Kentucky to pass by the Sweet Springs in Virginia; thence to Winchester. This new road, it is supposed, will be nearly 200 miles shorter than the one now travelled.

Elkhorn river, a branch of the Kentucky, from the south-east, waters a country fine beyond description. The cattle have eaten all the cane and bushes as high as they can reach. In Sept. 1798, this river was dry. The country east and south of this, including the head waters of Licking river, Hickman's and Jessamine creeks, and the remarkable bend in Kentucky river, may be called an extensive garden. The soil is deep and black, and the natural growth, large walnuts, honey and black locust, poplar, elm, oak, hickory, sugar-tree, &c. Grape vines run to the tops of the trees; but the grapes are not equal to those of New-England; and the surface of the ground is covered with clover, blue grass and wild rye. On this fertile tract, and the Licking river, and the head waters of Salt river, are the bulk of the settlements in this country. The soil within a mile or two of Kentucky river is generally of the third and fourth rates; and as you advance towards the Ohio, the land is poor and hilly.

Dick's river runs through a great body of first rate land, abounding with cane, and affords many excellent mill-seats. Salt river has good lands on its head waters, except that they are low and unhealthy;

but for 25 miles before it empties into the Ohio, the land on each side is level and poor, and abounds with ponds.

Cumberland river, so much of it as passes through Kentucky, traverses (some parts excepted) a hilly poor country. On this river, in Wayne county, a bloomery has lately been erected. Ore is plenty, the iron good.

Green river overflows its banks a considerable way up, at the season when the Ohio swells, which is in April. This swell in Green river occasions several of its branches to overflow, and cover the low grounds with water, leaves and vegetable substances, which, in summer, become noxious and unhealthy. Its banks are fine and fertile. There is a great body of good land near the falls and rapids in the Ohio, called Bare-grass; but the climate is rendered unhealthy by ponds of stagnant water, which may be easily drained.

This country in general is well timbered. Of the natural growth which is peculiar to this country, we may reckon the sugar, the coffee, the papaw, the hackberry, and the cucumber trees. The two last are soft wood, and bear a fruit of the shape and size of a cucumber. The coffee tree resembles the black oak, and bears a pod, which encloses a seed, of which a drink is made not unlike coffee. Besides these, there is the honey locust, black mulberry, wild cherry, of a large size. The buck-eye, an exceedingly soft wood, is the horse chesnut of Europe. The magnolia bears a beautiful blossom of a rich and exquisite fragrance. Such is the variety and beauty of the flowering shrubs and plants which grow spontaneously in this country, that in the proper season the wilderness appears in blossom.

The accounts of the fertility of the soil in this country, have, in some instances, exceeded belief, and probably have been exaggerated. That some parts of Kentucky, particularly the high grounds, are remarkably good, all accounts agree. The lands of the first rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce 50 and 60, and in some instances it is affirmed, 100 bushels of good corn, an acre. In common, the land will produce 30 bushels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds common in this climate, yield abundantly. Cotton is seldom and with difficulty brought to perfection. Irish potatoes produce well, but succeed better further north; sweet potatoes are raised with difficulty.

A species of rye was found by the first settlers growing wild in Kentucky, and all the lands near the Ohio. It had a bearded ear, like the cultivated rye, the beard somewhat longer, and the grain less. [*Imlay.*]

The staple commodities in this state, are wheat and tobacco. But the bulk and weight of these articles, the great distance from market, and the difficulty in navigating the Missisippi, render them unproductive to the cultivators. The planters are now turning their attention to the raising of hemp, for which the soil is well adapted.

In the rivers are plenty of buffalo, pike and catfish of uncommon size, salmon, mullet, rock, perch, garfish, eel, suckers, sunfish, &c. Shad have not been caught in the western waters.

Swamps are rare in Kentucky; and of course the reptiles which they produce, such as snakes, frogs, &c. are not numerous. The

honey-bee may be called a domestick insect, as it is said not to be found but in civilized countries. This is confirmed by a saying which is common among the Indians, when they see a swarm of bees in the woods, "Well, brothers, it is time for us to decamp, for the white people are coming." Nevertheless, bees of late years, have abounded, to their amazement, even 200 miles N. and N. W. of the Ohio.

The quadrupeds, except the buffalo, are the same as in Virginia and the Carolinas.

Climate.] Healthy and delightful, some few places in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds excepted. The inhabitants do not experience the extremes of heat and cold. In 1798, the greatest heat was 89° Farenheit. The weather in winter is very fluctuating. On the 26th of September, 1798, a frost killed the cotton and potatoe vines. Snow seldom falls deep, or lies long. The winter, which begins about Christmas, is never longer than three months, and is commonly but two, and is so mild as that cattle can subsist without fodder.

Manufactures.] It is proposed to establish a large cotton manufactory by a company of wealthy men, aided by workmen from Europe. A vineyard is begun by another company. This undertaking has commenced on a capital of 10,000 dollars, and is superintended by a Swiss gentleman. It was in 1803, 10 acres in extent, and promises to be productive. Many private vineyards are also forming in different parts of the state.

Chief Towns.] Frankfort, the captital of this state, is situated on the north bank of Kentucky river, in Franklin county. The legislature and supreme courts of the state hold their sessions here. It is a flourishing town, regularly laid out, and has a number of handsome houses. The state-house is a large, sightly, stone building. Here is the state prison or penitentiary house.

Lexington is the largest town in this state, and stands on the head waters of Elkhorn river, in Fayette county, 24 miles east of Frankfort, in the midst of a fine tract of country. It had, in 1786, only about 100 houses. In 1796 its inhabitants were supposed to amount to upwards of 2,000; among whom were a number of very genteel families, affording very agreeable society. It has five places for publick worship, a court-house and gaol, two printing-offices which publish two weekly newspapers, and 3 large ropewalks. It has a duck, several good nail, and 2 cotton, factories for spinning, one of which has 186 spindles. In its vicinity is a factory for weaving in the Manchester way. Lexington has about 20 handsome, and well assorted stores, and for its age, probably does more business, than any inland town on the continent. It has also a university, known by the name of Transylvania.

Washington is the shire town in Mason county, 60 miles N. E. of Lexington, having about 1,000 inhabitants, and fast increasing.

Louisville is very pleasantly situated at the rapids of the Ohio, in a fertile country, and promises to be a place of great trade. It has been made a port of entry. Its unhealthiness, owing to stagnated waters back of the town, has considerably retarded its growth.

Beardstown, in Nelson county; Danville and Harrodsburg in Mercer; Georgetown in Scott county; and Versailles, in Woodford county, are towns established by law, and increasing fast.

Population and Character.] The population of this state, in 1790, was 73,677, of whom 12,430 were slaves. In 1800, 220,955, of whom 40,343 were slaves.

In 1783, in the county of Lincoln only, there were, on the militia rolls, 3,570 men, chiefly emigrants from the lower parts of Virginia. In 1784, the number of inhabitants was reckoned at upwards of 30,000. It is asserted that at least 20,000 migrated here in the year 1787. These people, collected from different states and nations, of different manners, customs, religious and political sentiments, have not been long enough together to form a uniform national character. A large portion of the people in this state are poor. The frontier inhabitants commonly build a log hut, clear two or three acres for corn, depend on the woods to pasture one or two cows, and to fatten their swine; the gun furnishes the principal supply of meat. When the range, as he calls it, is eaten up by the cattle, and the game scarce, like the wild Arab, he loads his pack-horse, takes his family, cows, and swine, and seeks a new settlement. In the interior parts of the state, where the inhabitants have increased in wealth and taste, the buildings are generally of lime-stone or brick, and in some instances they are elegant. Among the settlers there are many gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families, from several of the states, who give dignity and respectability to the settlement. These are, in general, more regular than people who settle new countries.

Religion.] No preference is given to any one religious denomination; the Presbyterians, Baptists, Methodists, and Episcopalians are the most numerous.

Constitution.] By the constitution of this state, formed and adopted in 1792, the powers of government are divided into three distinct departments; legislative, executive, and judiciary. The legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives; the supreme executive, in a governour; the judiciary, in the supreme court of appeals, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The representatives are chosen annually by the people; the senators and governour are chosen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpose; the judges are appointed during good behaviour, by the governour, with advice of the senate. An enumeration of the free male inhabitants, above 21 years old, is to be made once in four years. After each enumeration, the number of senators and representatives is to be fixed by the legislature, and apportioned among the several counties, according to the number of inhabitants. There can never be fewer than forty, nor more than 100 representatives. The senate at first consisted of 11 members; and for the addition of every four representatives one senator is to be added. The representatives must be 24 years old; the senators 27; the governour 30; and all of them must be inhabitants of the state two years. The governour can hold no other office. The members of the general assembly none, but those of attorney at law, justice of the peace, coroner, and in the militia. The judges, and all other officers, must be inhabitants of the counties for which they are appointed. The governour, members of the general assembly, and judges, receive stated salaries out of the publick treasury, from which

no money can be drawn but in consequence of appropriation by law. All officers take an oath of fidelity to discharge the duties of their offices, and are liable to impeachment for misconduct. Elective officers must swear that they have not used bribery in obtaining their elections. All free male citizens 21 years old, having resided in the state two years, or in the county where they offer to vote, one year, have a right to vote for representatives, and for electors of senators and governour, and are privileged from arrest, in civil actions, while attending that business. The general assembly meets on the first Monday in November, in each year, unless sooner convened by the governour. Each house chooses its speaker and other officers, judges of the qualifications of its members, and determines the rules of its proceedings, of which a journal is kept and published weekly, unless secrecy be requisite. The doors of both houses are kept open. The members of the legislature, while attending the publick business, are privileged from arrests in civil actions, and may not be questioned elsewhere for any thing said in publick debate. Impeachments are made by the lower house, and tried by the upper. All revenue bills originate in the house of representatives, and are amendable by the senate, like other bills. Each bill passed by both houses is presented to the governour, who must sign it if he approve it; if not, he must return it within ten days, to the house in which it originated; if it be not returned, or if, when returned, it be repassed by two-thirds of both houses, it is a law without his signature. The governour has power to appoint most of the executive officers of the state; to remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachments; to require information from executive officers; to convene the general assembly on extraordinary occasions, and adjourn them in case they cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform the legislature of the state of the commonwealth; recommend to them such measures as he shall think expedient; and see that the laws are faithfully executed. The speaker of the senate exercises the office of governour in case of vacancy. The legislature has power to forbid the farther importation of slaves, but not to emancipate those already in the state, without the consent of the owner, or paying an equivalent. Treason against the commonwealth consists only in levying war against it, or in adhering to its enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

The declaration of rights asserts the civil equality of all; their right to alter the government at any time; liberty of conscience; freedom of elections and of the press; trial by jury; the subordination of the military to the civil power; the rights of criminals to be heard in their own defence; the right of the people to petition for the redress of grievances, to bear arms, and to emigrate from the state. It prohibits unreasonable searches and seizures; excessive bail; confinement of debtors, unless there be presumption of fraud; suspension of *habeas corpus* writ, unless in rebellion or invasion: *ex post facto* laws; attainder by the legislature; standing armies; titles of nobility, and hereditary distinction.

The laws of Kentucky do not allow a man to make oath to his own account. Merchants must have a clerk or some disinterested person

to testify to the accuracy of their accounts, before they can recover their debts.

Literature and Improvements.] The legislature of Virginia, while Kentucky belonged to that state, made provision for a college in it, and endowed it with very considerable landed funds. There has been since established a college at Lexington, called *Transylvania*, regularly organized and well endowed, having a fund of 14,000 acres of land, mostly of the first rate, the greater part of which lies in the vicinity of Lexington and Louisville. The officers of the university, are a President and two professors in the literary departments; three medical professors, in the school of Medicine, on the various branches connected with that department, and a professor of law; a divinity professorship is also contemplated. The Library, which amounts to near three thousand volumes, was in part furnished by several liberal gentlemen in England, through the Reverend John Todd of Virginia. There is a tolerable beginning of a philosophical apparatus, which the corporation is (together with the library) gradually enlarging. Besides this library, there is, in the town of Lexington where the university stands, a circulating library of about 1000 volumes. Schools are established in the several towns, and, in general, regularly and handsomely supported. In this state are paper mills, oil mills, fulling mills, saw mills, and a great number of valuable grist mills. Several valuable tanneries have been established in different parts of the country. Their salt works are more than sufficient to supply all their inhabitants, at a low price. They make considerable quantities of sugar from the sugar trees.

Curiosities.] The banks, or rather precipices, of Kentucky and Dick's rivers, are to be reckoned among the natural curiosities of this country. Here the astonished eye beholds 300 or 400 feet of solid perpendicular rock, in some parts, of the lime-stone kind, and in others of fine white marble, curiously checkered with strata of astonishing regularity. These rivers have the appearance of deep artificial canals. Their high rocky banks are covered with red cedar groves.

Caves have been discovered in this country of several miles in length, under a fine lime-stone rock, supported by curious arches and pillars. Springs that emit sulphureous matter have been found in several parts of the country. One is near a salt spring, in the neighbourhood of Boonsborough. There are three springs or ponds of bitumen near Green river, which do not form a stream, but empty themselves into a common reservoir, and when used in lamps, answer all the purposes of the best oil. Copperas and alum are among the minerals of Kentucky. Near Lexington are found curious sepulchres full of human skeletons. It has been asserted that a man, in or near Lexington, having dug five or six feet below the surface of the ground, came to a large flat stone, under which was a well of common depth, regularly and artificially stoned. At the bottom of the falls in the Ohio, is a small rocky island, overflown at high water, which is remarkable for its petrifactions. Wood, roots, and fish bones are found petrified; also a hornets nest, a bird, and several fish. [*Imlay.*]

History.] See the general account of the discovery and settlement of North America, page 122.

NORTH-CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 450 / Breadth 180	between	1° and 8° W. lon. / 33° 50′ and 36° 30′ N. lat.	34,000

Breadth across the centre from 35° north latitude, 105 miles.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by Virginia; east by the Atlantick Ocean; south by South-Carolina* and Georgia; west by Tennessee. All that country which now forms the state of Tennessee was surrendered to the United States by North-Carolina, in 1789.†

* The line between this state and South-Carolina is not exactly ascertained. A considerable extent of territory is claimed by North-Carolina, over which South-Carolina exercises jurisdiction.

† The charter limits of North-Carolina are a line beginning on the sea side, at a cedar stake, at or near the mouth of a little river, (being the southern extremity of Brunswick county) and running thence a north-west course through the boundary house, in latitude 33° 56′ to latitude 35°, and on that parallel west as far as is mentioned in the charter of king Charles II. to the original proprietors of Carolina, viz. to the South Sea. Their northern line begins on the sea-coast in latitude 36° 30′, and runs due west to the termination of the southern line. This line strikes the Missisippi 15 miles below the mouth of the Ohio. These limits were ascertained and confirmed agreeably to an order of George II. in council in the year —— Great Britain, by the treaty of 1763, which was made with France and Spain, surrendered her claim to all the territory westward of the Missisippi, and those nations by the same treaty granted to Great-Britain the free navigation of the Missisippi. By the treaty of 1783, between Spain and Great-Britain his Catholick Majesty expressly confirms the former treaty of 1763, except such parts as are there excepted; consequently he confirms to Great-Britain the navigation of the Missisippi; and Great-Britain on her part, yields to the United States her entire right to the navigation of the Missisippi. But since Spain now claims the exclusive navigation of the Missisippi, which she had formerly surrendered, it is very probable that the United States, to whom North-Carolina has ceded her western territory, may claim the lands on the west side of the Missisippi, which were within the original charter bounds of that state.

Captain Collet, under the patronage of Governour Tryon, published in 1774, the best map of this state. [*Mr. Attmore.*]

The following was received from a source which may be relied on as accurate, and contains information that may be useful.—"Lord Granville's line ran in lat. 35° 34′, equal to 56 geographical miles wide from the Virginia line in 36° 30′ equal to 64¾ English miles. The charter to the lords proprietors included from the Virginia line in 36° 30′ to 29° inclusive. But St. Augustine lies in 29° 45′. So that allowing 7½ degrees to the lords proprietors, that is, one degree further to the southward than ever the English were possessed of till after the treaty of Paris, this 7½ degrees divided amongst eight, would leave to each lord proprietor, 56 min. 15 sec. wide. Lord Granville retained his eighth share by settlement between him and the king, under the force of an act of parliament. See Collin's British Peerage; see also the act of parliament." Lord Granville's territory measured at Orange county, about 72 English miles wide, by Mr. Christopher Nial and others, whereas it ought to have measured only 64¾ English miles.

Civil Divisions.] This state is divided into three grand districts, viz. the Eastern, Middle and Western. Each of these is subdivided into three smaller districts, and these again into counties, as in the following Table. The number of inhabitants in the respective districts is stated according to the census of 1790.

EASTERN DISTRICTS.

Districts.	Counties.	Principal Towns.
Wilmington district, 26,035 inhabitants.	Brunswick	Smithville
	N. Hanover	*Wilmington*
	Onslow	Swansboro'
	Duplin	Sarecto
	Bladen	Elizabethtown
Newbern district contains 55,540 inhabitants.	Carteret	Beaufort
	Jones	Trenton
	Craven	*Newbern*
	Beaufort	Washington
	Hyde	Germantown
	Pitt	Greensville
	Wayne	
	Glasgow	
	Lenoir	Kingston
	Johnston	Smithfield
Edenton district contains 53,770 inhabitants.	Tyrrell	Elizabethtown
	Washington	
	Currituck	
	Camden	Jonesborough
	Pasquetank	Nixonton
	Perquimons	
	Chowan	*Edenton*
	Gates	Hertford
	Hertford	Wynton
	Bertie	Windsor

MIDDLE DISTRICTS, extending from S. Carolina to Virginia.

Halifax district contains 64,630 inhabitants.	Northampton	
	Halifax	*Halifax*
	Martin	Williamston
	Edgcomb	Tarborough
	Warren	Warrenton
	Franklin	Lewisburg
	Nash	
Hillsboro' district contains 59,983 inhabitants.	Granville	Williamsboro'
	Person	
	Caswell	Leasburgh
	Orange	*Hillsborough*
	Wake	RALEIGH*
	Chatham	Pittsborough
	Randolph	

* The seat of government, being a town established for the publick buildings of the state, and meetings of the legislature.

Fayetteville dist. contains 34,020 inhabitants.	Moore	Alfordstown
	Cumberland	*Fayetteville*
	Sampson	
	Richmond	Rockingham
	Robeson	Lumberton
	Anson	Wadesborough

WESTERN DISTRICTS, extending from S. Carolina to Virginia.

Salisbury district contains 66,480 inhabitants.	Rockingham	
	Guilford	Martinville
	Montgomery	Stokes
	Stokes	Upper Saura
	Surry	Salem
	Iredell	
	Rowan	*Salisbury*
	Cabarrus	
	Mecklenburg	Charlotteville
Morgan district, 33,293 inhab.	Lincoln	Lincolnton
	Rutherford	Rutherfordton
	Burke	*Morgan**
	Buncomb	
	Wilkes	
	Ashe	

CENSUS OF 1800.

Districts.	No. of Counties.	No. Inhab in 1790.	No. Inhab. in 1800.	No. Slaves in 1790.	No. Slaves in 1800.
Morgan	6	33,293	49,184	2,693	4,643
Salisbury	9	66,480	90,376	7,148	13,389
Hillsborough	7	59,983	80,012	13,506	22,198
Halifax	7	64,630	69,136	25,402	31,445
Edenton	10	53,770	56,986	19,198	21,632
Newbern	10	55,540	60,433	15,900	20,134
Wilmington	5	26,035	30,617	10,056	11,649
Fayetteville	6	34,020	41,358	5,679	8,206
Total 8	60	393,751	478,103	100,571	133,296

Rivers.] Chowan river is formed by the confluence of three rivers, viz. the Meherrin, Nottaway and Black rivers; all of which rise in Virginia. It falls into the north-west corner of Albemarle Sound, and is three miles wide at its mouth, but narrows fast as you ascend it.

Roanoke is a long rapid river, formed by two principal branches, Staunton river, which rises in Virginia, and Dan river, which rises in North-Carolina. The low lands on this river are subject to inundations. It is navigable only for shallops, nor for these, but about 60 or 70 miles, on account of falls, which in a great measure obstruct

* The towns of which the names are in Italick, are the capitals of the districts, where the superior courts of law and equity are held.

the water communication with the back country. It empties, by several mouths, into the south-west end of Albemarle Sound. The planters on the banks of this river are supposed to be the wealthiest in North-Carolina.

Cushai or Cashie is a small river, which empties into Albemarle Sound between Chowan and the Roanoke.

Pamlico or Tar river opens into Pamlico Sound. Its course is from north-west to south-east. It is navigable for vessels drawing nine feet water to the town of Washington, about 40 miles from its mouth; and for scows or flats carrying 30 or 40 hogsheads, 50 miles further, to the town of Tarborough. Beyond this place the river is inconsiderable, and is not navigable.

Neuse river rises above Hillsborough, and after a winding course of near 500 miles, falls into Pamlico Sound, 70 miles below Newbern. At Newbern it is a mile and a half in width; thence it expands wider to the mouth, where it is nine miles wide. From a few miles above Newbern to Smithfield the Neuse is generally from 80 to 100 yards wide. To Newbern it is navigable for sea vessels, thence to Smithfield, 90 miles by land, 250 by water, boats pass carrying from 100 to 500 barrels. The last year (1801) a vessel of 120 tons was built near Smithfield, and in a swell of the river was sent down to Newbern. The principal branches of the Neuse are Little River and Contentney from the north, and Trent from the south.

Trent river, from the south-west, falls into the Neuse at Newbern. It is navigable for sea vessels about 12 miles above the town, and for boats 12 or 15 miles further. Herring ascend the Trent in great plenty, but rarely are caught in the Neuse above Newbern. Contentney river is navigable for boats in winter 30 or 40 miles.

This country is generally settled by emigrants from North-Britain; a hardy, industrious, economical race of people, and much in the habits of domestick manufactures. Black cattle are raised here with little care, and in great numbers; many of which are driven to Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, to market.

There are several other rivers of less note, among which are the Pasquetank, Perquimons, Little river, Alligator, &c. which discharge themselves into Albemarle Sound. All the rivers in North-Carolina, and, it may be added, in South-Carolina, Georgia and the Floridas, which empty into the Atlantick Ocean, are navigable by any vessel that can pass the bar at their mouths. While the water courses continue wide enough for vessels to turn round, there is generally a sufficient depth of water for them to proceed.

Cape Fear, more properly Clarendon river, opens into the sea, at Cape Fear, in about lat. 33° 45′. As you ascend it, you pass Brunswick on the left, and Wilmington on the right. The river then divides into northeast and northwest branches, as they are called. It is navigable for large vessels to Wilmington, and for boats to Fayetteville, on the North-West River, and promises to be made navigable for small boats 80 miles above Fayetteville, into the rich counties of Chatham, Moore, Randolph, and Orange, to a town lately laid off by the name of Haywoodsborough; which is situated at the conflu-

ence of Haw and Deep Rivers, the main branches of Cape Fear. This river affords the best navigation in North-Carolina.

Yadkin originates among the Blue Ridges of mountains; the heads of it, the Catawba and New River of Virginia, and Wataga of Tennessee, being but a few miles apart, although their courses are directly contrary. About 26 miles below Salisbury, are the narrows of the Yadkin, at which place there is an excellent fishery for shad; perhaps the best in the state. Vast numbers of this fish are caught here every spring. This river, through the industry and enterprize of Colonel Pearson, has been navigated by boats 100 miles above the town of Salisbury, except at the narrows, which the large rocks and the rapidity of the current render it impossible to pass with loaded boats. Here the boats are unfreighted, and the lading carried round the narrows by waggons, the distance of 7 or 8 miles. The Yadkin takes the name of Pedee River immediately below the narrows, where the Uwharre falls into Pedee, 50 or 60 miles from the South-Carolina line. On the line of North-Carolina, where Pedee passes into South-Carolina, a town has been lately laid out in Anson county, called Sneedsborough; which is growing rapidly, being a place of considerable trade to Georgetown and Charleston.

A committe of the general assembly, held at Fayetteville, December, 1793, being appointed to inquire into the probability of improving the inland navigation of the several rivers in this state, reported, that eight might probably be operated upon with great effect:

	Miles.
Broad river, for	30
Catawba, (a branch of Santee)	140
Yadkin, (a branch of Pedee)	180
Haw river,	50
Deep river,	50
Neuse, above Smithfield,	50
Tar river, above Tarborough and Fishing creek,	40
Roanoke, above Halifax,	30
Dan river,	50
	620

This state would be much more valuable, were it not that the rivers are barred at their mouths, and the coast furnishes no good harbours. These circumstances prevent the state from building large ships, for which they have an abundance of excellent timber. Several causes have been assigned for all the harbours and rivers being barred, south of the Chesapeak. Some suppose the bars are formed by the current of the long rivers throwing up the sands where their rapidity terminates. Others say that a bank is thrown up by the Gulf Stream, which runs near these shores.

The banks of the rivers in this, and the other neighbouring states, often overflow after great rains, which does much damage to the plantations. A gentleman on the spot asserts, that he has seen the water 30 feet below the banks of the river, just after it had been ten feet above them. This is owing to the narrowness of the mouths of the

rivers, which do not afford a sufficient channel for the waters, accumulating every mile, to discharge themselves into the ocean.

On some of the rivers in North-Carolina there is found what may be called a *shell rock*, being a concretion of shells and sand, in a hard ragged composition, and is sometimes used instead of stones, for the foundation of houses, which purpose, when mixed with mortar, it answers very well, making a strong wall. It is used in this way at Newbern.

Light House.] In 1794, a light-house was erected near Bald Head, a noted bluff on Cape Fear Island, at the mouth of Cape Fear or Clarendon river, bearing W. N. W. from the point of the Cape, four miles distant; and N. W. by N. from the extremity of the Frying Pan shoal, at eight leagues. The iron lantern is ten feet nine inches in diameter; and about fifteen feet nine inches in height.

In sailing from the eastward, bring the light to bear N. N. E. and then steer in north, which will carry a vessel clear of the shoal, and bring her a short distance to the westward of the bar. Observe, however, if it be in the night not to come into less than seven fathoms of water. If there be a necessity of sailing over the bar without a pilot, bring the house to bear north, or north half east, and steer directly in for it, until the vessel is close within the beach, and then for the fort, which bears from thence about north, and is plainly in sight. The channel over the bar is direct, and of good width. Strangers in a dark night should steer west, in lat. 33° 20′ or 25 at most, until they shoal in their water to 7 or 8 fathoms. By doing this, they may be sure of being to the westward of the bar.

Sounds, Capes, Inlets, &c.] Pamlico Sound is a kind of lake or inland sea, from 10 to 20 miles broad, and nearly 100 miles in length. It is separated from the sea, in its whole length, by a beach of sand hardly a mile wide, generally covered with small trees or bushes. Through this bank are several small inlets, by which boats may pass. But Ocrecock inlet is the only one that will admit vessels of burden into the districts of Edenton and Newbern. This inlet is in latitude 35° 10′, and opens into Pamlico Sound, between Ocrecock Island and Core Bank; the land on the north is called Ocrecock; and on the south Portsmouth. A bar of hard sand crosses this inlet, on which, at low tide, there are 14 feet water. Six miles within this bar, is a hard sand shoal, called the Swash, lying across the channel. On each side of the channel are dangerous shoals, sometimes dry. There is from 8 to 9 feet water at full tide, according to the winds, on the Swash. Common tides rise 18 inches on the bar, and 10 on the Swash. Between the bar and the Swash is good anchoring ground, called the Upper and Lower anchorages. Ships drawing 10 feet water do not come farther than the first anchorage till lightened. Few mariners, though acquainted with the inlets, choose to bring in their own vessels, as the bar often shifts during their absence on a voyage. North of Pamlico Sound, and communicating with it, is Albemarle Sound, 60 miles in length, and from 8 to 12 in breadth.

Core Sound lies south of Pamlico, and communicates with it. These sounds are so large, when compared with their inlets from the

sea, that no tide can be perceived in any of the rivers that empty into them; nor is the water salt even in the mouths of these rivers.

Cape Hatteras is in latitude 35° 15′. In 1586, when the ships sent out by Sir Walter Raleigh approached the American shores, the shoals in the vicinity of Hatteras were found to be extremely dangerous, and no vessels, in that latitude, at that time, ventured within 7 leagues of the land. From a survey of the ancient drafts of this part of the coast, there can be no doubt but the fears of former navigators were not without foundation, as these shoals are laid down very large in extent, and in many places covered with not more than five or six feet water, at a great distance from the land.

The constant experience of the coasting trade of the United States demonstrates, either that the ancient drafts were purposely falsified in order to deter seamen from venturing too near a coast, with which they had as yet a very slender acquaintance, or, (which is the most probable) that by the strong currents hereabouts, which are only counter currents of the Gulf Stream, the sands, which were originally heaped up in this part of the ocean by some ancient convulsion of nature, have been gradually wearing away, and diminishing to what we find them to be at this time.

At present the out shoals, which lie about 14 miles south-west of the Cape, are but of 5 or 6 acres extent, and where they are really dangerous to vessels of moderate draught, not more than half that number of acres. On the shoalest part of these is, at low water, about 10 feet; and here at times the ocean breaks in a tremendous manner, spouting, as it were, to the clouds, from the violent agitations of the Gulf Stream, which touches the eastern edge of the banks, from whence the declivity is sudden, that is to say, from 10 fathoms to no soundings. On the spot above mentioned, which is firm sand, it has been the lot of many a good vessel to strike, in a gale of wind, and to go to pieces. In moderate weather, however, these shoals may be passed over, if necessary, at full tide, without much danger, by vessels not drawing more than 8, 9, or 10 feet water.

From this bank, which was formerly of vast extent, and called the Full Moon Shoal, a ridge runs the whole distance to the Cape, about a north-west course. This ridge, which is about half a mile wide, has on it at low tide generally 10, 11, and 12 feet water, with gaps at equal intervals, affording good channels of about 15 or 16 feet water. The most noted of these channels, and most used by coasting vessels, is about one mile and a half from the land, and may easily be known by a range of breakers which are always seen on the west side, and a breaker head or two on the eastern side, which however are not so constant, only appearing when the sea is considerably agitated. This channel is at least two and a half miles wide, and might at full sea be safely passed by the largest ships. These, however, rarely attempt it. The common tides swell about six feet, and always come from the south-east. A little north of the Cape is good anchoring in four or five fathoms, and, with the wind to the westward, a boat may land in safety, and even bring off casks of *fresh water*, plenty of which is *to be found every where on the beach, by digging a foot or two, and putting a barrel into the sand.*

It is remarkable that off the coast, from Cape Henry to Ocrecock Inlet, in sounding, the bottom seems uniformly a smooth sand. A fishing line with a heavy iron marline-spike, tied to keep it near the bottom, has been dragged for several days along the bottom, without breaking the fishing line, so that probably there are no rocks on that part of the coast.

Cape Lookout is south of Cape Hatteras, opposite Core Sound, and has already been mentioned, as having had an excellent harbour entirely filled up with sand, since the year 1777.

Cape Fear is remarkable for a dangerous shoal, called, from its form, the Frying Pan. This shoal lies at the entrance of Cape Fear river, the south part of it, six miles from Cape Fear pitch, in latitude 33° 32′.

Swamps.] There are two swamps that have been called *Dismal.*

Great Dismal is on the dividing line between Virginia and North-Carolina. It is chiefly owned by two companies. The Virginia company, of which General Washington was one, owns 100,000 acres. The North-Carolina company owns 40,000 acres. In the midst of this Dismal there is a lake about seven miles long, called Drummond's pond. The waters of that lake in rainy seasons discharge themselves to the southward into Pasquetank of North-Carolina, and to the north and eastward into the branches of the Nansemond, Elizabeth river, and a river which runs into Currituck Sound. A navigable canal is to be dug from the head of Pasquetank to the head of Elizabeth river in Virginia the distance about 14 miles. This canal will pass about a mile to the eastward of Drummond's pond, and will receive water from that lake. To pass through the lake would not be safe for low-sided vessels. The company, by whom this canal is to be cut, have been incorporated by the concurring laws of Virginia and North-Carolina. In September, 1791, the subscription being nearly full, the company chose their directors and other officers. By the canal, the exports of Norfolk must be greatly increased.

The other Dismal is in Currituck county, on the south side of Albemarle Sound. This *Dismal* had not drawn the publick attention as an object of importance before the end of the late war, at which time it was chiefly taken up. It is now supposed to contain one of the most valuable rice estates in America. In the midst of this Dismal there is a lake of about 11 miles long, and seven miles broad. In the year 1785, or 1786, Josiah Collins, Esq. of Edenton, in company with Messrs. Allen and Dickinson of that place, having taken up nearly 100,000 acres of land round the lake, resolved to make a navigable canal from the lake to the head of Skuppernong river; the distance five and a half miles. This canal, 20 feet wide, was finished in 1790, and the company in 1791 raised above 120 acres of rice on the margin. The natural channel by which the lake used to discharge its waters is now stopped, and the waters pass off by the canal. About 500 yards from the lake, the company have erected several saw mills. The water in the lake is higher than the surface of the ground for about half a mile from the lake on both sides of the canal; whence it follows that the company can, at any time, lay under water about ten

thousand acres of a rich swamp, which proves admirably fitted for rice. Beside these, there is the Great *Green* swamp, of which we know nothing but the name.

Curiosities.] The Ararat, or Pilot Mountain, about 16 miles north-west of Salem, draws the attention of every curious traveller in this part of the state. It is discernible at the distance of 60 or 70 miles, overlooking the country below. It was anciently called the Pilot, by the Indians, as it served them for a beacon, to conduct their routes in the northern and southern wars. On approaching it, a grand display of nature's workmanship, in a rude dress, is exhibited. From its broad base, the mountain rises in easy ascent, like a pyramid, near a mile high, to where it is not more than the area of an acre broad; when, on a sudden, a vast stupendous rock, having the appearance of a large castle, with its battlements, erects its perpendicular height to upwards of 300 feet, and terminates in a flat, which is generally as level as a floor. To ascend this precipice, there is only one way, which, through cavities and fissures of the rock, is with some difficulty and danger effected. When on the summit, the eye is entertained with a vast delightful prospect of the Apalachian mountains, on the north, and a wide, extended level country below, on the south; while the streams of the Yadkin and Dan, on the right and left hand, are discovered at several distant places, winding, through the fertile low grounds, their way towards the ocean.

In the county of Rowan about 10 miles south-west from Salisbury, 200 from the sea, and 70 from the mountains, is a remarkable subterraneous wall. It stands on uneven ground, near a small brook. The stones of the wall are all of one kind, and contain iron ore. They are of various sizes, but generally weighing about four pounds. All are of a long figure, commonly 7 inches in length, sometimes 12. The ends of the stones form the sides of the wall. Some of these ends are square, others nearly of the form of a parallelogram, triangle, rhombus or rhomboides; but most of them are irregular. Some preserve their dimension through the whole length; others terminate like a wedge. The alternate position of great and little ends aid in keeping the work square. The surface of some is plain, of some concave, of others convex. Every concave stone is furnished with one convex. Where the stones are not firm, they are curiously wedged with others. The most irregular are thrown into the middle of the wall. Every stone is covered with cement, which next to the stone, has the appearance of iron rust. Where it is thin the rust has penetrated through. Sometimes the cement is an inch thick, and where wet, has the fine, soft, oily feeling of putty. The thickness of the wall is uniformly 22 inches, the length yet discovered is about 300 feet, and the height 12 or 14. Both sides of the wall are plastered with the substance in which the stones are laid. The top of the wall appears to run nearly parallel with the top of the ground, being generally about a foot below the surface. In one place it is several feet. There is a bend or curve of 6 feet or more, after which it proceeds in its former direction. The whole appears to be formed in the most skilful manner, but when or for what purpose, is left entirely to conjecture.

Six or eight miles from this wall another has since been discovered, 40 feet long, 4 or 5 feet high, 7 inches thick. These stones are all of one length, but of different kinds.

Mineral Springs.] In the counties of Warren, Montgomery, Rockingham, Lincoln, Buncomb and Rowan are mineral springs of great medicinal virtue. They are impregnated chiefly with sulphur, nitre, and the aerial acid, and are powerful in removing cutaneous scorbutick complaints, and correcting indigestions. Numbers of people from the lower country and elsewhere repair to these springs, in the autumn, for health, which is generally obtained by copiously drinking the waters.

Principal Towns.] Newbern, Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillsborough and Fayetteville, each in their turns have been the seat of the general assembly. Until lately they had no capital. According to the constitution of this state, the general assemblies are to meet at any place they think fit on their own adjournments. The effect of this power was such as might be expected, in a state where there is no very large city or town nearly central; it was the source of constant intrigue and disquietude. The assembly seldom sat twice in succession in the same place. The publick officers were scattered over every part of the country. You could seldom visit the governour, the secretary, the treasurer, or the comptroller, in less riding than two or three hundred miles. Hence records were lost, accounts were badly kept, and the state from that single misfortune, is supposed to have lost more than a million of dollars. It was equally clear to all parties that the government should not be itinerant; and the convention which met in the year 1788, to consider of the new federal constitution, according to their instructions, took this part of their own constitution into their consideration, and by a very small majority resolved that the seat of government should be fixed at some place to be agreed on by commissioners, within ten miles of Wake court-house. This is a healthy and central situation. But an act of the legislature became necessary to give effect to this ordinance. The general assembly of the state, at their session in December, 1791, passed a law for carrying the ordinance into effect, and appropriated 10,000l. towards erecting publick buildings. A town has since been laid out at this place, and named Raleigh, after the celebrated Sir Walter Raleigh, under whose direction the first settlement in North-America was made at Roanoke Island in Albemarle Sound.

Raleigh is now the metropolis. The first session of the general assembly was held here in 1794. The town stands in an elevated situation; no running water is near. The nearest navigable water is at Smithfield, 27 miles distant. The city is divided into four squares by as many spacious streets. In the centre is a publick square in the middle of which stands the state-house. The town in 1800 consisted of about 80 houses, scattered over ground that might contain thousands. It has since considerably increased. One street is compact; on this stands Wake court-house, the government house, and most of the houses of entertainment. Most of the houses are of wood, in an indifferent style; the state-house is brick; "a misshapen pile," which cost 30,000 dollars, and begins to appear ruinious; some of the low-

er floor has already fallen. The lower story is divided into four parts by two spacious passages, which cross each other in the centre. In this story are kept the offices of the secretary, treasurer, and comptroller. In the second story are the halls of the two houses, and two clerks' offices. There is not a single committee room. Committees transact their business in the halls crowded with spectators, or in private rooms.

Newbern is the largest town in the state. It stands on a flat, sandy point of land, formed by the confluence of the rivers Neuse on the north, and Trent on the south. Opposite the town, the Neuse is about a mile and a half, and the Trent three quarters of a mile wide. The town contains about 400 houses,* all built of wood, excepting the palace, the church, the goal, and two dwelling houses, which are of brick. The palace was a building erected by the province before the revolution, and was formerly the residence of the governours. It was large and elegant, two stories high, with two wings for offices, a little advanced in front towards the town; these wings were connected with the principal building by a circular arcade: The arms of the king of Great-Britain appeared in a pediment in front of the building. The Episcopal church is a small brick building, with a bell: It is the only house for publick worship in the place. But there are two rum distilleries in the town; one of which has been converted into a theatre. It is the county town of Craven county, and has a court house and gaol. The court house is raised on brick arches, so as to render the lower part a convenient market place; but the principal marketing is done with the people in their canoes and boats at the river side. Masons' Hall, when finished, will be the most elegant building in the state. It is of brick. Besides the lodge-rooms, it will contain a theatre and an assembly room. An elegant brick court house is also building. Newbern is said to be one of the most healthy towns in the state.

Edenton is situated on the north side of Albemarle Sound, and has about 150 indifferent wood houses, and a few handsome buildings. It has a brick church for Episcopalians, which for many years has been much neglected. Its local situation is advantageous for trade, but not for health. It is the county town of Chowan county, and has a court-house and gaol. In or near the town lived the proprietary and the first of the royal governours.

Plymouth is about 20 miles from Edenton. It is a place of considerable trade. The navigation is free and open, and there is a constant communication between the two places, across Albemarle Sound.

Wilmington is a town of about 250 houses, situated on the east side of the eastern branch of Cape Fear or Clarendon river, 34 miles from the sea. The course of the river, as it passes by the town, is from north to south, and is about 150 yards wide. It is a place of very considerable trade, and thriving.

Hillsborough is an inland town, situated in a high, healthy and fertile country, 180 miles north of west from Newbern. It was settled by about 60 or 70 families as long ago as 1786.

* In September, 1791, near one third part of this town was consumed by fire. In August, 1795 it suffered greatly by a severe gale of wind. Seventy houses, it is said, were either wholly destroyed or much injured. In 1798, the palace was burned.

Salisbury is agreeably situated in Rowan county, about five miles from Yadkin river, and contains about 70 dwelling houses.

Halifax is a pretty town, and stands on the western bank of the Roanoke, about six miles below the falls, and has about 30 or 40 dwelling houses.

A new town by the name of Haywood, named in honor of John Haywood, Esq. has been laid out at the confluence of Deep and Haw rivers in Chatham county. Thence the stream assumes the name of Cape Fear river. When the obstructions to navigation are removed at two rapids in this river, it is expected that Haywood will be a place of considerable trade. Some suppose it will become the seat of government. It is 45 miles W. N. W. of Fayetteville, and 32 S. W. of Raleigh.

Fayetteville, so called in honour of the Marquis La Fayette, is situated in the county of Cumberland, on the west side of the north-west branch of Cape Fear, nearly at the head of the natural navigation of the same, 100 miles above Wilmington. On the bank of the river stand a few buildings, and the tobacco warehouses, capable of containing about 6,000 hogsheads, which quantity has been received here in one season, a considerable proportion of which is equal to Petersburg tobacco. The centre, and most improved part of the town, is about a mile from the river, in the fork and near the junction of Blount's and Cross creek; from the latter, on whose banks it principally stands, the town formerly was named. It is well built on both sides of the creek, and contains nearly 400 houses, and two very decent publick buildings, for the supreme, district and county courts, and the meetings of the town police and its citizens; one built of brick, and the other of wood, by voluntary subscriptions and donations. They are erected in two publick squares, of 300 feet, fronting each other, about a quarter of a mile apart; into each of these squares run four principal streets, of 100 feet wide. The buildings being open below afford excellent market places. The Free Masons' lodge, lately built here, is a large handsome edifice. Fayetteville is better situated for commerce, and vends more merchandize than any inland town in the state; and few places are more eligible for the establishment of several important manufactures. There are three mills at this place, which make excellent flour; several cotton machines, which go by water, several extensive tan-yards; and one or two considerable distilleries and breweries. The product received here is, tobacco, cotton, which is becoming one of the principal exports from this place, flour, wheat, beef, pork, flax-seed, some hemp, cotton, butter, and a variety of other articles, the product of a rich and fertile back country, lying to the north and west of this town, from 30 to 180 miles. Add to this, quantities of saw-mill lumber, staves, and some naval stores made in the neighbourhood. The town has increased since the revolution in a very rapid manner, but has experienced some dreadful checks from fire: the inhabitants begin now to use bricks for building, which are made here of a fine quality, and sold from five to six dollars per thousand. The country immediately round the town is a high, sandy, dry soil, and not fertile, except on the water courses, which are numerous, and generally afford as rich soil as any in the state. The boats used between

this place and Wilmington, are from 120 barrels burden to 500; and perform a trip from 10 to 15 days.

Washington is situated in the county of Beaufort, on the north side of Tar river, in latitude 35° 30′, distant from Ocrecock Inlet 90 miles. From this town is exported tobacco of the Petersburg quality, pork, beef, Indian corn, peas, beans, pitch, tar, turpentine, rosin, &c. and pine boards, shingles and oak staves. About 130 vessels enter annually at the custom-house here; and it owns more shipping than any other town in the state. The inhabitants are noted for their hospitality.

Greenville, so called after major-general Nathaniel Green, is situated in Pitt county, on the south bank of Tar river, in lat. 35° 35′, distant from Ocrecock Inlet 110 miles. At this town there is an academy established, called the Pitt Academy.

Tarborough is situated in the county of Edgcomb, on the south bank of Tar river, in latitude 35° 45′, distant from Ocrecock Inlet 140 miles. At this town large quantities of tobacco of the Petersburg quality, pork, beef and Indian corn, are collected for exportation.

Smithfield is at the head of navigation on the Neuse, ninety miles from Newbern by land, 250 by water. It has seven stores; is the county town of Johnston county, and has the best court-house in the state.

Face of the Country, Soil and Productions.] North-Carolina, in its whole width, for 60 miles from the sea, is a dead level. A great proportion of this tract lies in forest, and is barren. On the banks of some of the rivers, particularly the Roanoke, the land is fertile and good. Interspersed through the other parts, are glades of rich swamp, and ridges of oak land, of a black rich soil. In all this champagne country, marine productions are found by digging 18 or 20 feet below the surface of the ground. The sea-coast, the sounds, inlets, and the lower parts of the rivers, have uniformly a muddy, soft bottom. Sixty or 80 miles from the sea, the country rises into hills and mountains, as described under this head in South-Carolina and Georgia.

Wheat, rye, barley, oats and flax grow well in the back hilly country. Indian corn and pulse of all kinds in all parts. Ground peas run on the surface of the earth, and are covered by hand with a light mould, and the pods grow under ground; they are eaten raw or roasted, and taste much like a hazlenut. Cotton and hemp are also considerably cultivated here. The cotton is planted yearly: the stalk dies with the frost. The cotton is worth 4 or 5 dollars per hundred in the seed. An acre will yield from 700 to 1000 weight. One man can take care of 15 or 20 acres. Machines are used that clean 1000 pounds in a day. Lately, the cotton is raised principally in the middle of the state. In the back country, tobacco and flour; in the low and middle country, pork; and near the sea, boards, tar and lumber, are the principal articles of export. The tobacco is generally sent to Petersburg. Cattle and swine are driven in great numbers to Petersburg, Richmond, Norfolk and Alexandria, and there killed. Merchants generally purchase their goods at Petersburg,

Baltimore and Philadelphia. The country is generally friendly to the raising of sheep, which yield from ¾ to 2½ pounds of wool, which is short and not very fine. In the winter cattle are fed, but they require only the husks of the corn and the stalks.

Trade.] A great proportion of the produce of the back country, consisting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c. is carried to market in South-Carolina and Virginia. The southern interior counties carry their produce to Charleston; and the northern to Petersburg in Virginia. The middle counties generally trade to Fayetteville, which is the principal inland town in the state. The exports from the lower parts of the state, are tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin, Indian corn, boards, scantling, staves, shingles, furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and a few other articles, amounting in the year ending Sept. 30, 1791, to 524,548 dollars. In 1801, the exports from this state amounted to 874,884 dollars. In 1804, to 928,687 dolls. Their trade is chiefly with the West-Indies and the northern states. From the latter they receive flour, cheese, cider, apples, potatoes, iron wares, cabinet wares, hats, and dry goods of all kinds, imported from Great-Britain, France and Holland, teas, &c. From the West-Indies, rum, sugar, and coffee.

Medical Society.] In this state a Medical Society was incorporated Dec. 23, 1799. The members of the society are from the most reputable physicians of the state. It is a valuable institution. They have encouraged the culture of various medicinal articles, which thrive here very well. Palmi Christi and other medicines promise to be articles of exportation.

Climate, Diseases, &c.] In the flat country, near the sea-coast, the inhabitants, are subject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal, as bilious or nervous symptoms prevail. These fevers are seldom immediately dangerous to the natives who are temperate, or to strangers who are prudent. They, however, if suffered to continue for any length of time, bring on other disorders, which greatly impair the natural vigour of the mind, debilitate the constitution, and terminate in death. The countenances of the inhabitants during these seasons, have generally a pale yellowish cast, occasioned by the prevalence of bilious symptoms. They have very little of the bloom and freshness of the people in the northern states.

It has been observed that more of the inhabitants, of the men especially, die during the winter, by pleurisies and peripneumonies, than during the warm months by bilious complaints. These pleurisies are brought on by intemperance, and by an imprudent exposure to the weather. Were the inhabitants cautious and prudent in these respects, it is alleged by their physicians, that they might in general escape the danger of these fatal diseases. The use of flannel next to the skin during the winter, is reckoned an excellent preventative of the diseases incident to this climate. June is the most healthy month; often May and July may be called healthy. Summers dry and cool are the most salubrious. In September and October, bilious fevers prevail, but if skilfully treated, are seldom fatal. More deaths occur in February and March, from inflammatory complaints of the head and breast than in any part of the year. In the hilly country fluxes

are common, and very fatal to children. The county of Warren is very healthy. Pulmonary consumptions, epilepsies, apoplexies, tetanus and rickets, are hardly known in North-Carolina. Ringworms, tetters, scurvy in the teeth and gums, are common. The western hilly parts of the state are as healthy as any of the United States. That country is fertile, full of springs and rivulets of pure water. The air there is serene a great part of the year, and the inhabitants live to old age, which cannot so generally be said of the inhabitants of the flat country. Though the days in summer are extremely hot, the nights are cool and refreshing. The hottest weather is in July. From the first of July, to the first of September, the mercury ranges between 80 and 96, and sometimes, though seldom, it rises above 100. Within a few years past, or since the yellow fever has been so prevalent in the United States, it appears that the intermittent fever has become more common in the upper parts of the state, and not so frequent in the low lands. Autumn is very pleasant, both in regard to the temperature and serenity of the weather, and the richness and variety of the vegetable productions which the season affords. The winters are so mild in some years, that autumn may be said to continue till spring. Wheat harvest is the beginning of June, and that of Indian corn early in September.

Natural History, Manufactories, &c.] The large natural growth of the plains in the low country, is almost universally pitch-pine, which is a tall, handsome tree, far superior to the pitch-pine of the northern states. This tree may be called the staple commodity of North-Carolina. It affords pitch, tar, turpentine, and various kinds of lumber, which, together, constitute at least one half of the exports of this state. This pine is of two kinds, the common and the long-leaved. The latter has a leaf shaped like other pines, but is nearly half a yard in length, hanging in large clusters. No country produces finer white and red oak for staves. The swamps abound with cyprus and bay trees. The latter is an evergreen, and is food for cattle in the winter. The leaves are shaped like those of the peach tree, but larger. The most common kinds of timber in the back country, are oak, walnut and pine. A species of oak grows in the moist, sandy soil, called black jack. It seldom grows larger than eight or nine inches diameter. It is worthy of remark, that the trees in the low country, near the sea-coast, are loaded with vast quantities of a long species of moss, which, by absorbing the noxious vapour that is exhaled from stagnated waters, contributes much, it is supposed, to the healthiness of the climate. This hypothesis is confirmed by experience, since it is commonly observed, that the country is much less healthy for a few years after having been cleared, than while in a state of nature.

The Missletoe is common in the middle country. This is a shrub which differs in kind, perhaps, from all others. It never grows out of the earth, but on the tops of trees. The roots (if they may be so called) run under the bark of the tree, and incorporate with the wood. Is is an evergreen, resembling the garden boxwood.

The principal wild fruits are plums, grapes, (from which a tolerable wine has been made) strawberries and blackberries.

The country is generally covered with herbage of various kinds, and a species of wild grass. It abounds with medicinal plants and roots. Among others are the ginseng; Virginia snake-root; Seneca snake-root, an herb of the emetick kind, like the ipecacuana; Lion's heart, which is a sovereign remedy for the bite of a serpent. A species of the sensitive plant is also found here; it is a sort of brier, the stalk of which dies with the frost, but the root lives through the winter, and shoots again in the spring. The lightest touch of a leaf causes it to turn and cling close to the stalk. Although it so easily takes the alarm, and apparently shrinks from danger, in the space of two minutes after it is touched, it perfectly recovers its former situation. The mucipula veneris is also found here. The rich bottoms are overgrown with canes. The leaves are green all the winter, and afford an excellent food for cattle. They are of a sweetish taste, like the stalks of green corn, which they in many respects resemble.

There is a long ridge of lime-stone, which, extending in a south-westerly direction, crosses the whole state of North-Carolina. It crosses Dan river to the westward of the Sawro towns, crosses the Yadkin about 50 miles N. W. from Salisbury, and thence proceeds by the way of King's mountain to the southern states. No lime-stone has been found to the eastward of that ridge. A species of rock has been found in several places, of which lime is made, which is obviously a concretion of marine shells. The state is traversed nearly in the same direction by another stratum of rocks which passes near Warrenton. It is a circumstance worthy of observation, that the springs of water on the north-west side of the ridge are apt to fail in dry seasons; on the south-west side they seldom fail.

The river Yadkin, where it passes Salisbury, is about 400 yards broad, but it is reduced between two hills, about 25 miles to the southward of that town, to the width of 80 or 100 feet. For two miles it is narrow and rapid, but the most narrow and rapid part is not above half a mile in length. In this narrow part, shad are caught in the spring of the year, by hoop-nets, in the eddies, as fast as the strongest men are able to throw them out. Perhaps there is not in the United States a more eligible situation for a large manufacturing town. Boats with 40 or 50 hogsheads pass easily from these rapids to Georgetown. In the month of August, 1795, some negroes who were digging a sand-hill on the plantation of Major Walker, about a mile from Wilmington in this state, discovered a number of bones, and two teeth of an extraordinary size. The teeth measured 15 inches in circumference; they were found 12 feet below the surface. Whether they are the bones and teeth of the Mammoth, remains to be ascertained. It has been a prevailing opinion that this animal's bones were not to be found near the sea coast. Should the bones above mentioned prove to be those of the Mammoth, it will shew the error of this opinion.

The late war, by which North-Carolina was greatly convulsed, put a stop to several iron works. At present there are four or five furnaces in the state that are in blast, and a proportionable number of forges. There is one in Guilford county, one in Surry, and one in Wilkes, all on the Yadkin, one in Lincoln, and one in Johnson. The quality of the iron is excellent.

One paper mill has lately been erected at Salem, by the Moravians, to great advantage.

Gold Mine.] A gold mine has been lately discovered in Cabarrus county in this state, which has already (Jan. 1805) furnished the mint of the United States, with virgin gold, which has produced, 11,000 dollars gold coin ;* more has been found, but the extent of the mine has not yet been discovered.

Religion.] The western parts of this state, which have been settled within the last 40 years, are chiefly inhabited by Presbyterians from Pennsylvania, the descendants of people from the north of Ireland, and are exceedingly attached to the doctrines, discipline and usages of the church of Scotland. They are a regular and industrious people. Almost all the inhabitants between the Catawba and Yadkin rivers are of this denomination, and they are in general well supplied with a sensible and learned ministry. There are interspersed some settlements of Germans, both Lutherans and Calvinists, but they have very few ministers.

The Moravians have several flourishing settlements in this state. In 1751, they purchased of Lord Granville one hundred thousand acres of land, between Dan and Yadkin rivers, about 10 miles south of Pilot Mountain, in Surry county, and called it Wachovia, after an estate of Count Zinzendorf, in Austria. In 1755, this tract, by an act of assembly, was made a separate parish by the name of Dobb's parish. The first settlement, called Bethabara, was begun in 1753, by a number of the brethren from Pennsylvania, in a very wild, uninhabited country, which, from that time, began to be rapidly settled by farmers from the middle states.

In 1759, Bethany, a regular village, was laid out and settled. In 1766, Salem, which is now the principal settlement, and nearly in the centre of Wachovia, was settled by a collection of tradesmen. The same constitution and regulations are established here, as in other regular settlements of the United Brethren. Besides, there are in Wachovia three churches, one in Friedland, one in Friedburg, and another at Hope, each of which has a minister of the Brethren's church. These people, by their industry and attention to various branches of manufacture, are very useful to the country around them.

The Friends or Quakers have a settlement in New Garden, in Guilford county, and several congregations at Perquimons, Pasquetank, and on Cane Creek, Orange county. The Methodists and Baptists are numerous and increasing in the four lower districts. Besides the denominations already mentioned, there is a very numerous body of people, in this and all the southern states, who cannot properly be classed with any sect of Christians, having never made any profession of Christianity. This class has been very considerably lessened, we are informed, in consequence of the success of the Baptist and Methodist missionaries among them, who have collected congregations, and erected places for publick worship in almost every neighbourhood, in the districts of Wilmington, Newbern, Edenton and Halifax, and lately in all the upper districts, where they are intermingled with the Presbyterians in the same neighbourhood.

* Report of the Director of the Mint, Jan. 1805.

Colleges and Academies.] The general assembly of North-Carolina, in December, 1789, passed a law incorporating 40 gentlemen, five from each district, as Trustees of the University of North-Carolina. To this university they gave, by a subsequent law, all the debts due to the state, from sheriffs or other holders of publick money, and which had been due before the year 1783. They also gave it all escheated property within the state. A considerable quantity of land has been given to the university. The general assembly, in December, 1791, loaned five thousand pounds to the trustees, to enable them to proceed immediately with their buildings. The trustees fixed on Chapel-hill, in Orange county, for the site of the university, an elevated and handsome situation, 28 miles west of Raleigh, and 14 south of Hillsborough. The village began with the university, around which were erected, previous to 1803, 25 or 30 houses. Chapel-hill village is near, containing 15 or 20 houses. The college has a professor of sciences, a professor of languages, and three tutors. There is a tolerable library, philosophical apparatus, and a small cabinet of curiosities. The students are from North-Carolina, Virginia, Tennessee and Kentucky.

A college edifice of brick, 100 feet by 40, two stories high, is finished. Houses for the president and steward, built of wood, are completed. Another college is begun 180 feet in length, three stories high. More than a hundred students had entered; the instructors had begun the hopeful labour of teaching the youth of North-Carolina.

There is a very good academy at Warrenton, which has 120 scholars. The academy at Fayetteville has about the same number. There is also an academy at Guilford, at Lumberton, at Newbern, at Williamsborough in Granville county, at Chatham court-house and Hillsborough.

Population, Character, Manners and Customs.] From the census of 1800, it appears that the number of inhabitants in this state is 478,103, of whom 133,296 are slaves. Perhaps there are few instances of such a rapid increase of inhabitants as we find in this state. In the year 1710, we are well assured that the number of inhabitants in North-Carolina did not exceed 6,000. This extraordinary increase must arise, in a great measure, from the migration of inhabitants from other states, or from distant countries; but this will not fully account for the present state of population in North-Carolina. By examining the census of 1790, we find there were 147,494 white male inhabitants; we also find that the number of males under 16 years exceeded the number above 16 by 7,518, which is about one nineteenth of the whole. This is a very remarkable fact, as it respects the increase of the human species. We find a small difference in the states of Delaware, Virginia and Georgia, in favour of those under 16. The difference in Kentucky is similar to that in North-Carolina. In the other states, the number above 16 is greatest, and in the several kingdoms in Europe, as far as our information reaches, the inhabitants above 16 are universally much more numerous than those under that age. The great difference that appears in North-Carolina in favour of children, cannot be explained by supposing that the climate is sickly; for we know that such climates are equally fatal to young and

old. The idea too of a sickly climate, does not accord with the prodigious increase of inhabitants in this state, nor with another fact, viz. that there is a considerable proportion of very old inhabitants. To explain this, we must observe that the human species, and all other animals, are found to increase in proportion to the comforts of life, and the ease with which they can support their progeny. Remove the rigours of an inhospitable climate, and the more uniform dissuasive from matrimony, the *apprehended* difficulty of supporting a family, and the human species would double, not in 20 but in 15 years. The low country is unhealthy; but there are some instances of longevity. Their very early marriages account for their increasing population. Neither the heat of summer, nor the cold of winter are disagreeable in the back country of North-Carolina. Land continues to be plenty and cheap; grain is raised with so much ease, and the trouble of providing for cattle in winter so trifling, that a man supports his family with half the labour that is required in the cold climates. Under these advantages, we are not to wonder that people in all ranks of life should marry very young. We have heard of grandmothers in that state who were not more than 27 years old.

The North-Carolinians are mostly planters, and live from half a mile to three and four miles from each other, on their plantations. They have a plentiful country, no ready market for their produce, little intercourse with strangers, and a natural fondness for society, which induce them to be hospitable to travellers.

Temperance and industry have not heretofore been reckoned among the virtues of the North-Carolinians. The time which they wasted in drinking, idling and gambling, left them very little opportunity to improve their plantations or their minds. The improvement of the former was left to their overseers and negroes; the improvement of the latter was too often neglected.

Time that is not employed in study or useful labour, in every country, is generally spent in hurtful or innocent exercises, according to the custom of the place or the taste of the parties. The citizens of North-Carolina, were formerly in the habit of spending their time in drinking, or gaming at cards and dice, in cock-fighting or horse-racing.

We are told that a strange, and very barbarous practice prevails among the lower class of people, in the back parts of Virginia, North and South Carolinas, and Georgia; it is called gouging, and is neither more nor less than a man, when boxing, putting out the eye of his antagonist with his thumb. We have lately been told, that in a particular county, where at the quarterly court, 20 years ago, a day seldom passed without 10 or 15 boxing matches, it is now a rare thing to hear of a fight.

Since the peace, there has not been greater progress in the arts of civilized life made in any of the states, than in North-Carolina. Instead of dissipation and indolence, formerly too prevalent among the inhabitants we generally find a more orderly, industrious people, who are, in some measure, indebted for this reform to the great immigration of farmers and artizans from the northern states, who have roused the spirit of industry among them, in a country where it may be cultivated and cherished to any degree. The schools that have lately been

erected in different parts of the state, have greatly contributed to the advancement of knowledge, and the improvement of the people. Many native young gentlemen, first initiated in literature in some of these schools, and finishing their education in Europe, or in some of the northern colleges, have exhibited proofs of genius in the learned profession equal to most of their northern brethren. Some of these characters are distinguished in the legislature, on the bench, at the bar, and in the pulpit, doing honour to this country.

North-Carolina, in point of numbers, is the fifth state in the Union. During this progress in population, which has been greatly aided by immigrations from Pennsylvania, Virginia, and other states, while each has been endeavouring to increase his fortune, the human mind, like an unweeded garden, has been suffered to shoot up in wild disorder. But when we consider that during the late revolution, this state produced many distinguished patriots and politicians, that she sent her thousands to the defence of Georgia and South-Carolina, and gave occasional succours to Virginia—when we consider too the difficulties she has had to encounter from a mixture of inhabitants, collected from different parts, strangers to each other, and intent upon gain, we shall find many things worthy of praise in her general character.

Military Strength.] The number of fencible men in this state is estimated at about 50,000.

Constitution.] By the constitution of this state, which was ratified in December, 1776, all legislative authority is vested in two distinct branches, both dependent on the people, viz. a Senate and House of Commons, which, when convened for business, are styled the General Assembly. The senate is composed of representatives, one from each county, chosen annually by ballot. The house of commons consists of representatives chosen in the same way, two for each county, and one for each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Salisbury, Hillsborough, Halifax, and Fayetteville.

The qualifications of a senator, are one year's residence, immediately preceding his election, in the county in which he is chosen, and 300 acres of land in fee.

A member of the house of commons must have usually resided in the county in which he is elected, one year immediately preceding his election, and for six months shall have possessed, and continue to possess, in the county which he represents, not less than 100 acres of land in fee, or for the term of his own life.

A freeman of 21 years of age, who has been an inhabitant in the state twelve months immediately preceding the day of any election, and who had possessed a freehold of 50 acres of land within the county for six months next before, and at the day of election, is entitled to vote for a member of the senate.

All freemen of 21 years of age, who have been inhabitants of the state the year next before the election, and have paid publick taxes, may vote for members of the house of commons.

The senate and house of commons, when convened, choose each their own speaker, and are judges of the qualifications and elections of their members. They jointly, by ballot, at their first meeting after each annual election, choose a governour for one year, who is not

eligible to that office longer than three years, in six successive years; and who must possess a freehold of more than 1,000l. and have been an inhabitant of the state above five years. They, in the same manner, and at the same time, elect seven persons to be a council of state for one year, to advise the governour, in the execution of his office. They appoint a treasurer or treasurers for the state. They triennially choose a state secretary. They jointly appoint judges of the supreme courts of law and equity—judges of admiralty, and the attorney-general, who are commissioned by the governour, and hold their offices during good behaviour. They prepare bills, which must be read three times in each house, and be signed by the speaker of both houses, before they pass into laws.

Judges of the supreme court, members of the council, judges of admiralty, treasurers, secretaries, attorney-generals for the state, clerks of record, clergymen, persons denying the being of a God, the truth of the protestant religion, or the divine authority of the Old and New Testaments, receivers of publick monies, whose accounts are unsettled, military officers in actual service, are all ineligible to a seat in either the senate or house of commons—justices of the peace, being recommended by the representatives, are commissioned by the governour, and hold their offices during good behaviour. The constitution allows of no religious establishment. The legislature are authorised to regulate entails so as to prevent perpetuities. A majority of both houses is necessary to do business.

History.] The history of North-Carolina is less known than that of any of the other states. From the best accounts that history affords, the first permanent settlement in North-Carolina was made about the year 1710, by a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumstances of great indigence, by a calamitous war. The proprietors of Carolina, knowing that the value of their lands depended on the strength of their settlements, determined to give every possible encouragement to such emigrants. Ships were accordingly provided for their transportation, and instructions were given to governour Tynte to allow 100 acres of land for every man, woman and child, free of quit rents, for the first 10 years; but at the expiration of that term, to pay one penny per acre, annual rent forever, according to the usages and customs of the province. Upon their arrival, governour Tynte granted them a tract of land in North-Carolina, since called Albemarle and Bath precincts, where they settled, and flattered themselves with having found, in the hideous wilderness, a happy retreat from the desolations of a war which then raged in Europe.

In the year 1712, a dangerous conspiracy was formed by the Coree and Tuscarora tribes of Indians, to murder and expel this infant colony. The foundation of this conspiracy is not known. Probably they were offended at the encroachments upon their hunting ground. They managed their conspiracy with great cunning and profound secrecy. They surrounded their principal town with a breast-work to secure their families. Here the warriors convened to the number of 1,200. From this place of rendezvous they sent out small parties, by different roads, who entered the settlement under the mask of

friendship. At the change of the full moon, all of them had agreed to begin their murderous operations the same night. When the night came they entered the houses of the planters, demanding provisions, and pretending to be offended, fell to murdering men, women and children, without mercy or distinction. One hundred and thirty-seven settlers, among whom were a Swiss baron, and almost all the poor Palatines that had lately come into the country, were slaughtered the first night. Such was the secrecy and dispatch of the Indians in this expedition, that none knew what had befallen his neighbour, until the barbarians had reached his own door. Some few, however, escaped and gave the alarm. The militia assembled in arms, and kept watch day and night, until the news of the sad disaster had reached the province of South-Carolina. Governour Craven lost no time in sending a force to their relief. The assembly voted 4,000l. for the service of the war. A body of 600 militia, under the command of Col. Barnwell, and 366 Indians of different tribes, with different commanders, marched with great expedition, through a hideous wilderness, to their assistance. In their first encounter with the Indians, they killed 300 and took 100 prisoners. After this defeat, the Tuscaroras retreated to their fortified town, which was shortly after surrendered to Col. Barnwell. In this expedition it was computed that near 1000 Tuscaroras were killed, wounded and taken. The remainder of the tribe soon after abandoned their country, and joined the Five Nations, with whom they have ever since remained. After this, the infant colony remained in peace, and continued to flourish under the general government of South-Carolina, till about the year 1729, when seven of the proprietors, for a valuble consideration, vested their property and jurisdiction in the crown, and the colony was erected into a separate province, by the name of North-Carolina, and its present limits established by an order of George II. From this period to the revolution in 1776, the history of North-Carolina is unpublished, and of course unknown, except to those who have had access to the records of the province. Some of the most important events that have since taken place, have been already mentioned in the general history of the United States.

List of Governours since the Revolution.

Richard Caswell was at the head of the government from the Convention in 1775 to April 1777, under the authority of the Provincial Conventions.

Governours.		
Richard Caswell	from April, 1777	to April, 1780
Abner Nash	April, 1780	April, 1781
Thomas Burke	1781	1782
Alexander Martin	1782	1785
Richard Caswell	1785	1787
Samuel Johnstone	Nov. 1787	Nov. 1789
Alexander Martin	Nov. 1789	Dec. 1792
Richard Dobbs Spaight	Dec. 1792	Dec. 1795
Samuel Ash	1795	
William R. Davie		1800
Benjamin Williams,	1801	

Dr. Hugh Williamson is employed in writing the history of this state.

TENNESSEE.*

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	400	between	6° 30′ and 15° 30′ W. lon.
Breadth	104		35° and 36° 30′ N. lat.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Kentucky and part of Virginia; east, by North-Carolina; south, by Georgia and the Missisippi Territory; west, by the Missisippi, which separates it from Louisiana.

Settlements.] The Indian claim has been extinguished in two portions of this country, the eastern and the western, comprehending one third part of the state. The former is bounded north by Virginia, from the south-east corner of Kentucky, to the north-west of North-Carolina; easterly, by North-Carolina; westerly, by Cumberland mountain, Emery's river, &c. and southerly, by a line marked from place to place, as a continuation of the Cherokee boundary. The western tract, thus purchased of the Indians, lies on Cumberland river, and is bounded north, by Kentucky; easterly, by a line running from the north-east to the south-west; and south and west, by a line of several thousand angles, run according to the Tennessee ridge, which separates the waters of the Cumberland from those of the Tennessee river. The general course of this ridge-line is, first westerly and then north-westerly; which, imagining the zigzag reduced into two straight lines, makes the figure of the tract a trapezium. The longest side is that adjoining Kentucky, the length of which, ascertained by measurement, is nearly 160 miles. The length of the easterly side is about 90 miles.

Settlements are extended over both these tracts; though in some places, particularly on the frontiers, but sparsely: Yet they are fast filling; and a further purchase of the Indians will soon be thought necessary.

The eastern is generally called the Holston settlement, and the western, the Cumberland settlement, from those two prime rivers, which traverse the whole countries respectively.

Between these settlements lies a spacious wilderness, which the Cherokees claim and hunt over, and which, from one side of their claim to the other, as the road goes, is about 70 miles wide. This is an inconvenience severely felt by the western settlers, but which time will undoubtedly remedy. The first waggon road across this wilderness was opened in 1795. The distance between inhabitants was then considerably greater. [*Fisk.*]

Civil Divisions and Population.] This state, erected and organized in 1796, is divided into three districts and eighteen counties, as follows, viz.

* The following account of this state is corrected and improved by valuable information obligingly communicated to the Author by Moses Fisk, Esq.

The eastern settlement is divided into two districts, Washington and Hamilton.

Washington, which is the eastern, is subdivided into 5 counties, viz.

Counties.	Towns.*	Number of inhabitants in 1801.		
		Whites.	Slaves.	Total.
Washington	Jonesboro'			
Sullivan	Blountsville			
Green	Greenville	33,069	2,514	35,583
Carter	Elizabeth			
Hawkins	Rogersville			

Hamilton, the middle district, contains 9 counties, viz.

Knox	Knoxville			
Jefferson	Dandridge			
Cocke	Newport			
Granger	Rutledge			
Blount	Maryville	34,840	2,996	37,836
Sevier	Sevierville			
Anderson	Burrville			
Claiborne	Tazeville			
Roane	Kingston			

Mero district, the western settlement, is divided into 7 counties, viz.

Davidson	Nashville			
Sumner	Gallatin			
Robertson	Springfield			
Montgomery	Clarkesville	24,109	8,074	32,183
Williamson	Franklin			
Wilson	Lebanon			
Smith				
Jackson				
		92,018	13,584	105,602

The supreme judicial court sits twice a year in each district.

In 1765, there were but about 10 families settled west of the Kanhawa. So many had joined them in 1773, that the settlement west of the Kanhawa was erected into a county, and in 1776, subdivided into three counties. By an enumeration of the people, made by the captains of militia companies, on the last Saturday in July, 1791, under an order from governour Blount, the number of inhabitants appeared to be 35,691; and under the authority of an "An act providing for the enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States of America south of the river Ohio," passed July 11, 1795, a second enumeration was made in the succeeding months of October and November, by the sheriffs of the respective counties, by which it appeared, that the number had increased to 77,262.

The inhabitants of this state emigrated chiefly from Pennsylvania, and that part of Virginia that lies west of the Blue Ridge. The an-

* These towns are the places of holding the courts of quarter sessions, and, except Lebanon and Tazeville, have post-offices.

cestors of these people were generally of the Scotch nation, some of whom emigrated first to Ireland, and thence to America. A few Germans and English are intermixed. Since 1794, the settlers in this state, have been principally from Virginia and the Carolinas.

Climate.] Moderate and healthy. In the tract lying between the Great Island, as it is called, and the Kanhawa, the summers are remarkably cool, and the air rather moist. South-west of this, as far as the Indian towns, and on the western side of the Cumberland mountains, the climate is much warmer, and the soil better adapted to the productions of the southern states, such as tobacco, cotton and indigo.

The diseases to which the adult inhabitants are most liable, are pleurisies, rheumatisms, and rarely agues and fevers. So healthy have been the inhabitants, that from the first settlement of the country, to 1788, not a single physician had settled among them. It is to the inhabitants a real advantage, that they are almost beyond the reach of those luxuries which are enjoyed, and those epidemical diseases which are consequently frequent, in populous towns on the sea-coast. An inhabitant of this district writes, "Our physicians are, a fine climate, healthy, robust mothers and fathers, plain and plentiful diet, and enough of exercise. There was not in 1790, a regular bred physician residing in the whole district." Physicians have since settled in every county in the state.

"The piercing northerly winds that prevail during the winter in the Atlantick states, seldom molest the inhabitants on Cumberland river; for they have no great mountains to the northward or westward. The inhabitants of the Atlantick states are also subject to sudden changes in the atmosphere, arising from their vicinity to the ocean. The air that comes from the surface of the sea, especially from the warm gulf stream in winter, must be very different in its temperature from the air that comes across the cold and high mountains; but the great distance between the Cumberland settlers and the ocean, considering that many great mountains intervene, effectually secures them against the bad effects of those sudden changes. North-easterly storms never reach this country.

"Other circumstances present themselves, by which we may account for the remarkable healthiness of this country. Lime-stone is common on both sides of Cumberland mountain. There are no stagnant waters; and this is certainly one of the reasons why the inhabitants are not affected with those bilious and intermitting fevers, which are so frequent, and often fatal, near the same latitude on the coast in the southern states. Whether it proceeds from the goodness of the water, the purity of the air, the temperature of the climate, or whatever may have been the cause, the inhabitants have certainly been remarkably healthy, ever since they settled on the waters of Cumberland river." [*Governour Blount.*]

There is scarcely a swamp or stagnated piece of water in the state. In the district of Mero remittent and intermittent fevers are the most frequent. They generally yield to medicine; their appearance is from August to December. If any endemial disease ought to be mentioned here, it is an *opthalmia membranarum*, or an inflammation

of the membranes of the eyes. It is generally cured by proper medicines; sometimes it ends in blindness. It is more common in Kentucky. [*Fisk.*]

Rivers and Mountains.] There are few countries so well watered as this with rivers and creeks. The principal rivers are, the Missisippi, which constitutes the western boundary, the Tennessee, Cumberland, Holston, Clinch; and the Wolf, Hatchee, Forked Deer, Obeon, Reelfoot, which pass through the part called *The Broken Ground*, into the Missisippi.

The Tennessee, called by the French Cherokee, and absurdly by others, the Hogohege river, is the largest branch of the Ohio; it is 600 yards wide at its mouth. It rises in the mountains of Virginia, latitude 37°; and pursues a course of about 1,000 miles south and south-west, nearly to latitude 34°, receiving from both sides a number of large tributary streams. It then wheels about to the north, in a circuitous course, and mingles with the Ohio, nearly 60 miles from its mouth. From its entrance into the Ohio, to the Muscle shoals, 250 miles, the current is very gentle, and the river deep enough, at all seasons, for the largest row boats. The Muscle shoals are about 20 miles in length. The bed of the river in this distance, consists of broken stones, easily removed, and the navigation will admit of much improvement. At these shoals the river spreads to the width of three miles, and forms a number of islands, and is of difficult passage, except when there is a swell in the river. From this place to the *Whirl* or *Suck*, where the river breaks through the Great Ridge, or Cumberland mountain, is 250 miles, the navigation all the way excellent.

The *Whirl*, as it is called, is in about latitude 35°. It is reckoned a greater curiosity than the bursting of the Patowmack through the Blue Ridge. The river, which a few miles above is half a mile wide, is here compressed to the width of about 70 yards. Just as it enters the mountain, a large rock projects from the northern shore, in an oblique direction, which renders the bed of the river still narrower, and causes a sudden bend; the water of the river is of course thrown with great rapidity against the southern shore, whence it rebounds around the point of the rock, and produces the whirl, which is about 80 yards in circumference. Boats pass the whirl without danger or difficulty. Such is the situation of the shore that boats ascending the river may be towed up. In less than a mile below the whirl the river spreads into its common width, and except the Muscle shoals, already mentioned, flows beautiful and placid, till it mingles with the Ohio.

Six miles above the whirl are the Chiccamogga towns, on the banks of the river, and of a large creek of the same name. From these towns to the mouth of the Hiwassee, is 60 miles by water, and about 40 by land. This river is a south branch of the Tennessee, and the only one of consequence, and passes through the Cherokee towns. It is navigable till it penetrates the mountains on its south side. Up this river, in these mountains, a mine has been discovered, and ore taken, from which it is said gold was extracted by an artist, while the British were in possession of Georgia. It is certain but few Indians know the spot, and those who do are very anxious to keep it a secret.

The gentleman who gave the author this information, has been within view of the place. The mountain is very high and barren, and has several of the appearances described by mineralists. The discovery was made by means of the river's undermining the base of a large cliff or spur of the mountain, which occasioned a great column of the earth or rock to tumble into the river. This disrupture discovered the vein of yellow metal at a great depth. The climate, the fine springs, and fertile plains, render the banks of this river a most delightful place of settlement. From a branch of the Hiwassee, called Amoia, there is but a short portage to a branch of the Mobile, and the road all the distance firm and level.

Passing up the Tennessee, 60 miles from the mouth of the Hiwassee, you come to the mouth of Clinch river, 35 miles below Knoxville. This river rises in Virginia, and comes in from the north, and is large and navigable for boats upwards of 200 miles, receiving in its course, besides inferior streams, Poplar creek, Powell's and Emerie's rivers, the former of which is nearly as large as the main river, and is boatable 100 miles. This river runs through Powell's Valley, an excellent tract of country, abounding with fine springs.

From the Clinch to the junction of the Holston and Tennessee, is computed 40 miles. The Holston is the branch which formerly gave its name to the main river, not from its size, but from its notoriety, having on its banks a vast number of Indian villages, and the chief town of the Cherokee Indians, called Chota, and was therefore called *Cherokee* river; but the name of Tennessee has of late obtained. It rises in Virginia, and empties into the Tennessee 22 miles below Knoxville, and receives in its course the waters of Watauga, French Broad, Nolichuckey, Great and Little Pigeon, and Little river. French Broad rises in South-Carolina, and, running through North-Carolina, it enters Tennessee at a breach of the mountain, which makes the partition between the two states, near to which boats ascend, then turns westerly till it loses itself in the Holston, 4 miles above Knoxville. The North Fork is another considerable branch of Holston. It rises in Virginia, between the sources of Holston and Clinch: It is 100 yards wide at the mouth, and it is said may be rendered navigable 60 or 70 miles. It crosses the valley at nearly right angles with the mountains, and has on its banks a number of beautiful plains, which are chiefly improved as corn-fields by the Indians. In 1788, the whites had advanced their settlements within ten miles of the Indian villages. Forty miles from the Tennessee up the Holston branch, comes in French Broad, 4 or 500 yards wide; thence pursuing the Holston 200 miles, you come to Long-Island, which was the highest navigation used in 1788; thence about 100 miles is the source of the river.

"The highest point of navigation upon this river, now, is *Tellico Blockhouse*, which stands upon its north bank immediately opposite the remains of *Fort Loudon*, and is computed at 900 miles, acording to its meanders above its mouth. Tellico Blockhouse is 32 miles south of Knoxville, and has proved a very advantageous military post ever since it was erected in the year 1794; and lately it has also been established by the United States as a trading post with the Indians,

under the direction of James Byers, jun. of Springfield, Massachusetts." [*Gov. Blount.*]

One mile below Long-Island comes in North-Holston; and 20 miles above it, the Watauga; the former is 160 yards wide at its mouth, and, with a small expense, might be made navigable to Campbell's Salines, 70 miles further up. On the banks of the Holston are many mines of iron ore, of the best kind, some of which have been opened and wrought to advantage; and enough might be made to supply the whole western country; and these mines are the more valuable, as there is said to be none of this ore near the Missisippi, and very little north of the Ohio. "The Holston is navigable for boats of 25 tons as high as the mouth of the North-Fork, upwards of 100 miles; at which place Mr. David Ross has erected, in part, and is completing, iron-works upon a large scale. At its mouth, on the north side, stands *Fort Granger*. The Tennessee proper is a branch navigable 30 or 40 miles, as far as Tellico." [*Gov. Blount.*] In the Tennessee and its upper branches, are great numbers of fish, some of which are very large and of an excellent flavour.

The head waters of the Great Kanhawa are in the western part of North-Carolina, in the most eastern ridge of the Allegany or Apalachian Mountains, and south of the 36th degree of latitude. Its head branches encircle those of the Holston, from which they are separated by the Iron Mountain, through which it passes ten, miles above the lead mines; thence steering its course along the foot of the Allegany Mountain, until it receives Little river from the east, it turns to the north, which is its general course till it meets the Ohio. About 60 miles from Little river, it receives Greenbriar river from the east, which is the only considerable tributary stream in all that distance. About 40 miles below the mouth of Greenbriar river, (in Virginia) in the Kanhawa, is a remarkable cataract. A large rock, a little elevated in the middle, crosses the bed of the river, over which the water shoots and falls about 50 feet perpendicular, except at one side, where the descent is more gradual.

"Cumberland river, formerly called *Shawanee*, and by the French, *Shavanon*, rises in Kentucky, runs to the southwest parallel with Cumberland Mountains, then sweeps an arch northwest, after which it enters Tennessee near the east extremity of Mero. Before this it has a large perpendicular fall. It then ranges through, or adjacent to, 7 counties of Tennessee, returns into Kentucky, and discharges its waters into the Ohio, 10 or 12 miles above the mouth of the Tennessee, and is navigable for large vessels to Nashville, and from thence to the mouth of Obed's river, 290 miles. Boats ascend to the falls, 500 miles, without any interruption. From the mouth to Nashville is 200, thence to where it leaves Kentucky 200, thence to the falls, 100 miles. In its passage through Mero the Cumberland forms several peninsulas by its meanders: some of them are 14 or 15 miles round, little more than a mile across the isthmus. The Cumberland and its branches water a most fertile and excellent country of land.

The course of the Caney Fork is north-west; it enters the Cumberland 50 miles easterly of Nashville, or 120 by the meanders. At the mouth it is 100 yards wide. Stones river rises about 30 miles south-

west of Nashville, runs north and falls into the Cumberland 8 miles above Nashville. Harpath rises 30 miles south of Nashville and falls into Cumberland 20 miles below it. Red river enters the Cumberland on the opposite side, near Clarksville. The Caney Fork, Harpath, Stones river, Red river, and Oby river, are branches of the Cumberland, some of them navigable a great distance. Also, Oby river, which descends from the Cumberland Mountains, running westerly, unites with the Cumberland, before which it is from 60 to 80 yards wide. On this river, and within one mile of the main road, leading from South-west point to Fort Blount, is a remarkable cataract; the sheet of water is about 18 feet wide, and falls from a projecting rock about 80 feet. About 50 yards from this fall is a similar cataract, though smaller, on the other branch of the river, and about 100 yards above the confluence. Wolf river is one of its branches. Roaring river rises south-west of Oby. The water of a creek, pouring over a lofty cataract into this river, occasions its name. It enters the Cumberland a few miles lower than the Oby.

"Wolf, Hatchee, Forked Deer, Obeon, and Reelfoot rivers discharge themselves immediately into the Missisippi. These rivers in general are deep, flow with a gentle current, and are unincumbered with rocks and rapids; most of them have exceedingly rich low grounds, at the extremity of which is a second bank, as on most of the lands of the Missisippi. Besides these rivers, there are several smaller ones, and innumerable creeks, some of which are navigable; in short, there is hardly a spot in this country which is upwards of 20 miles distant from a navigable stream." [*Gov. Blount.*]

It would take a volume to describe particularly the mountains of this state. Some of these mountains, particularly the Cumberland or Great Laurel Ridge, are the most stupendous piles in the United States, and occupy a part of the uninhabited country between Washington and Hamilton districts, and the district of Mero; and between the two first mentioned districts and the state of Kentucky. They abound with ginseng and stone coal. Clinch Mountain is south of these; in which Burk's Garden and Morris's Nob might be described as curiosities. This mountain divides the waters of Holston and Clinch rivers.

Cumberland Mountain lies north-west of the others. Its south-east front is generally impassable, craggy and steep; but several openings admit tolerable roads. A part of this ridge is the line between Virginia and Kentucky. In Tennessee it extends so widely with so level a surface, that instead of a mountain it may be called the highlands. As the road goes, the distance over is nearly 50 miles. The soil is not rich, but such as in many countries would soon be settled. West of this highland there is nothing in the state which may be called a mountain. The distance to the Missisippi is more than 200 miles. There are in this tract many gentle hills and branching ridges, fertile and well clothed with timber. The Tennessee ridge is the most considerable; it separates the streams which run to the Cumberland and Tennessee. In some parts it rises into abrupt hills, but in others admits of good roads.

Stone, Yellow, Iron, Bald, Smoky and Unaka Mountains, adjoining each other, form the eastern boundary of the state. Their direction is nearly north-east and south-west. The Iron Mountain extends from near the lead mines, on the Kanhawa, through the Cherokee country, to the south of Chota, and terminates near the sources of the Mobile. The caverns and cascades in these mountains are innumerable.

The Cumberland Mountain, in its whole extent, from the Great Kanhawa to the Tennessee, consists of the most stupendous piles of craggy rocks of any mountain in the western country. In several parts of it, for miles, it is inaccessible even to the Indians on foot. In one place particularly, near the summit of the mountain, there is a most remarkable ledge of rocks, of about 30 miles in length, and 200 feet thick, shewing a perpendicular face to the south-east more noble and grand than any artificial fortification in the known world, and apparently equal in point of regularity. Through this stupendous pile, according to a modern hypothesis, had the waters of all the upper branches of the Tennessee to force their way. The attempt would have been impracticable at any other place than the one mentioned, for more than 100 miles eastwardly. Here then seems to have been the chasm, left by the Creator, to convey off those waters, which must otherwise have overflowed, and rendered useless a vast tract of valuable country, encompassed within the mountains.

North-west from these, and separated from each other by vallies from 5 to 15 miles wide, rise Bay's Mountain, Copper Ridge, Clinch Mountain, Powell's Mountain and Welling's Ridge. These four last terminate north of the Tennessee river, and with all the rest are branches of Virginia mountains. Vallies encircle them all, opening channels for the rivers, and roads for man.

Animals.] A few years since, this country abounded with large herds of bison; but the improvident or ill-disposed among the first settlers have destroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonness. They are still to be found on some of the south branches of Cumberland river. The stag or hart is seen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. The deer are become comparatively scarce; so that no person makes a business of hunting them for their skins only. Enough of bears, panthers, wild-cats and wolves yet remain. Beavers, musk-rats and otters are caught in plenty in the upper branches of Cumberland and Kentucky rivers. Racoons, foxes, opossums and squirrels abound; as do pheasants, partridges, pigeons, swans, wild turkies, ducks and geese: Also, bald eagles, parroquets, loons, cranes and buzzards.

"The rivers are well stocked with all kinds of fresh water fish; among which are the trout, perch, cat-fish, buffalo-fish, red-horse, eels, &c. Some cat-fish have been caught that weighed upwards of one hundred pounds; and the western waters being more clear and pure than the eastern rivers, the fish are in the same degree more firm and savoury to the taste." [*Gov. Blount.*] In 1799, a fish was caught in the Holston a few miles below Knoxville, of a species unknown there. It was about six feet long. The scales, which were large and thick set, gave fire by collision with a flint, like steel.

[*Fish.*]

The Mammoth, the king of the land animals, was formerly an inhabitant of this country, as appears from his bones, which have been dug up by labourers at Preston's Salines, on North Holston, when sinking salt-pits. They were from three to seven feet below the surface of the earth. The bones have been also found at a lick near Nashville.

Salines, Mines, Springs, &c.] Preston's Salines, mentioned above, are on the North Fork of Holston, half a mile south of the river, 17 or 18 easterly from Abington. The tract which contains these salines is a great natural curiosity. It was discovered by Capt. Charles Campbell, about 1745, who was one of the first explorers of the western country. In 1753, he procured a patent for it from the governour of Virginia. His son, the late Gen. William Campbell, the same who behaved so gallantly in the American war in the years 1780 and 1781, became owner of it on his death. But it was not till the time of his death, when salt was very scarce and dear, that salt water was discovered, and salt made by a poor man. After that time, under the direction of Col. Arthur Campbell, it was improved to a considerable extent, and many thousands of inhabitants are now supplied from it, with salt of a superior quality, at a low price. The tract consists of about 300 acres of flat marsh-land, of as rich a soil as can be imagined. In this flat pits are sunk in order to obtain the salt water. They are from 60 to 90 feet deep; after passing through the rich soil or mud, you come to a very brittle lime-stone rock, with cracks or chasms, through which the salt water issues into the pits, whence it is drawn by buckets, and put into the boilers, which are placed in furnaces adjoining the pits. The hills that surround this flat are covered with fine timber. Near this, Mr. King has a well more than 200 feet deep, 10 feet square, constantly more than half full of water. Thirty-two gallons of this, and some of the other wells, make one bushel of salt. Two hundred bushels have been made in a day. It is equal to Liverpool salt. He can supply the state of Tennessee and the south-west of Virginia with this essential article.

This country is well supplied with springs of the purest lime-stone water. Some of these are so large as to turn a mill a few rods from the fountain. But few wells are dug in the country, the houses being generally built near some spring. Salt licks* are found in many parts of the country. Iron ore is found in the districts of Washington and Hamilton, and fine streams to put iron-works in operation. Ore has lately been discovered upon the south of Cumberland river, about 30 miles below Nashville, where a furnace has been erected. Iron ore abounds also in Mero District. There is a bloomery, a furnace and two forges within the county of Robertson. The quantities of castings, bar iron and steel made there will be equal to the wants of the

* The term *Salt Lick* and *Salt Spring* are used synonymously, but improperly, as the former differs from the latter in that it is *dry*. The term *lick* is derived from the circumstance of animals coming and *licking* up the particles of salt which are lodged on the surface of the ground. Wells sunk in such places, yield water strongly impregnated with salt, and from which that article is made. "The Big Lick in Virginia, is a kind of swamp containing several acres, and edged with several springs."

country. Three furnaces, a large number of bloomeries and forges are erected in Washington district. At one, a rolling mill and nailery can supply nails for the state. There is a furnace, a bloomery, and a forge in Hamilton. Ochre, copperas, alum and sulphur are found in many places. On some creeks of Cumberland are large beds of bituminous *schistus*. Stone coal has been found in two places, one 4, the other 7 miles from the salt works. Several lead mines have been discovered, and one upon French Broad has been worked: the ore produced 75 per cent. in pure lead.

"The Indians teach a belief, that there are rich silver mines in Cumberland Mountain, but cannot be tempted to discover any of them to the white people. On Powell's river, 12 miles from its mouth, a silver mine has been discovered.

"Ores and springs strongly impregnated with sulphur are found in various parts of the country. Saltpetre caves are numerous; and in the course of this year (1795) several tons of salt petre have been sent to the Atlantick markets.

"On the waters of French Broad river, is a fine, large, clear, medicinal, warm spring. Numbers of persons from the Carolinas, Georgia, and the southern parts of Virginia, have experienced its salutary effects in various complaints. When the improved state of the country shall afford sufficient accommodations, this spring will probably be as much resorted to as those of the back parts of Virginia, being more convenient to the southern states, and equally efficacious in healing diseases. The heat of the water is such, that at first going into it, it is hardly supportable." [*Gov. Blount.*]

Soil, Vegetable Productions and Commerce.] "The soil is luxuriant, and produces cotton, tobacco, indigo, Indian corn, hemp, flax, rice, wheat, rye, oats, barley and all kinds of vegetables, in the highest perfection. In short, this state will produce, in great perfection, every plant, vegetable, vine and grain, which grows in any of the United States. The usual crop of cotton is 800 pounds to the acre, in the seed, which affords about 250 pounds cleaned: The staple is long and fine. They gather from 60 to 80 bushels of corn on an acre of ground. It is asserted, however, that the lands on the small rivers that run into the Missisippi, have a decided preference to those on the Cumberland river, for the productions of cotton, rice and indigo." [*Gov. Blount.*]

The vallies, in the eastern part of this state, are from 5 to 15 miles wide. The face of the country in the neighbourhood of Nashville, is, in general, level, and the soil very rich, equal to any other part of America, and produces in abundance every thing that can be expected from so temperate a climate and so rich a soil. This part of the country is well watered by the rivers Tennessee and Cumberland, and their branches. Both of these rivers empty into the Ohio shortly after they pass the north boundary of the state. As the waters of the Cumberland from Nashville, and of the Tennessee from the Muscle Shoals to the Ohio, are navigable to the Ohio and Missisippi, the people of course, who live in this or the adjacent country, have the same advantages of water conveyance for trade, as those who live on the Ohio or Missisippi, to New Orleans or elsewhere. Besides, there is

another probable avenue through which trade will be carried on with this and the adjacent country; which is, from Mobile, up the waters of the Mobile river as far as it is navigable, thence by a land carriage of about 50 miles at most, to Ocochappo Creek, which empties into the Tennessee at the lower end of the Muscle Shoals. The mouth of this creek is the centre of a piece of ground, the diameter of which is five miles, ceded by the southern Indians at the treaty of Hopewell, on Keeowee, to the United States, for the establishment of trading posts.

"The kinds of trees and plants found in this state, are poplar, hickory, black and white walnut, all kinds of oaks, buck-eye, beech, sycamore, black and honey locust, ash, hornbeam, elm, mulberry, cherry, dogwood, sassafras, papaw, cucumber-tree, coffee-tree, and the sugar-tree. In the eastern district is a species of pitch-pine, useful for boards, timber and tar. The under-growth, in many places, and especially in low grounds, is cane, some of which is upwards of 20 feet high, and so thick as to prevent any other plant growing; there are also Virginia and Seneca snake-root, ginseng, Carolina pink, angelica, senna, lobelia, Indian physick, spice-wood, wild plum, crab-apple, haws, hazel-nuts, sweet anise, red bud ginger, spikenard, wild hop and grape vines. The glades are covered with wild rye, wild oats, clover, buffalo-grass, strawberries and pea vines. On the hills, at the heads of rivers, and in some high cliffs of Cumberland, are found majestick red cedars; many of these trees are 4 feet in diameter, and 40 feet clear of limbs."

[*Gov. Blount.*]

Manufactures.] The large iron works are Ross's, King's, Preston's and Herbert's, Blair's Robertson's, Bell's, Brown's and Bailey's, beside several others of less importance. Tennessee and the Missisippi Territory have raised considerable quantities of cotton for exportation. This is the principal article of export. It is raised to great advantage and in large quantities throughout the state, particularly on Cumberland river.

Roads.] The road leading from Hamilton district to Mero district, through the Cherokee country, is now kept in good repair by a Turnpike company, incorporated for that purpose in 1801.

The road opening from Nashville to Natches and to cross the turnpike below Muscle Shoals and above the mouth of Ocochappo river, has been extended as far as the Cherokee nation, and will be soon completed, its whole length. Its present extent is about 180 miles; it is 30 feet wide, and bridges and causeways are built where necessary.

The distance from Palmyra on the Cumberland, and the lowest town in Mero, to Nashville, as the road goes, is 54 miles. Clarksville is 12 miles from Palmyra on the same road. Knoxville is about east from Nashville, and, by road, near 200 miles distant. From Knoxville to Richmond in Virginia is 450 miles. From Nashville to Lexington in Kentucky is 200.

Chief Towns.] "Knoxville is situated in the county of Knox, on the north bank of the river Holston, (where a treaty was held with the Cherokees in July, 1791, it being then a wilderness) honoured with this name after Major-General Henry Knox, then secretary of

war," and is now the seat of government of this state. Its latitude is 35° 42′; distance from Philadelphia, 638 miles; from Baltimore, 543; and from Richmond, 458; to each of which there is a good waggon road. The superior courts of judicature for the district of Hamilton and the district federal courts for East-Tennessee are held here twice a year, and county courts four times. There were in this town in 1796 twelve stores. The town contained then about 80 dwelling houses, a large and handsome court-house of stone and several other publick buildings. The number of inhabitants, ascertained by the census of 1801, was 518;—free males 198, females 159, slaves 161.

"Nashville, north latitude 35° 45′, (so called after Brigadier-General Francis Nash, who fell on the 4th of October, 1777, in the battle at Germantown, in defence of his country) is a growing town, situated upon the south bank of Cumberland river. The superior state's courts, and the district federal court for West-Tennessee, are held twice a year at this place. It is also the seat of the courts held semi-annually for the district of Mero, and of the courts of pleas and quarter sessions, held for the county of Davidson. It is about 200 miles from Knoxville, and has 345 inhabitants.

"Jonesborough is the seat of the courts held for the district and county of Washington. There are eight other towns, but as yet not of sufficient importance to merit a description in this work."

[*Gov. Blount.*]

Religion.] The Presbyterians are the prevailing denomination of Christians in this state. They have a presbytery, called the Abingdon Presbytery, established by act of synod, which in, 1788, consisted of 23 large congregations, who were then supplied by only six ministers. There are some of the Baptist and Methodist denominations; also several neighbourhoods of Quakers.

Literature and Colleges.] The inhabitants of this state have not been inattentive to the interests of science. An academy and several grammar schools were early established; and a society, who style themselves "A Society for promoting Useful Knowledge;" from which much good is expected. A taste for literature has since been increased among this people.

Laws of incorporation have been made for three colleges, all in the eastern settlement; one in Knox, one in Washington, and one in Green's county. They are without endowments, and, of course, little more than nominal. But for the last the Rev. H. Balch, who is appointed its president, collected donations in money, to the amount of about 5,000 dollars, has erected a building for the accommodation of students, and, with the assistance of a tutor, is conducting a number of youths through a course of studies. Two other schools are kept in that settlement, and two in Mero, all supported by the monies which are paid for tuition, in which besides common instruction, Latin, Greek, arts and sciences, are taught.

There is an incorporation for an academy in Davidson county. It has some funds; but not yet sufficiently productive to support instruction.

Constitution.] By the constitution of this state, which was formed and ratified at Knoxville, Febuary 6, 1796, the legislative authority is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives. The number of representatives is to be fixed once in seven years, by the legislature, according to the number of taxable inhabitants, who are to be numbered septennially, the number of representatives not to exceed 26, until the taxable inhabitants shall be 40,000.

The senators are never to be less than one third, nor more than one half the number of the representatives, and are to be chosen upon principles similar to those for the choice of representatives. The election for members of both houses is biennial. Having been three years in the state, and one in the county, immediately preceding election, possessing 200 acres of land in the county, and being 21 years of age, render a man eligible to a seat in either branch of the legislature. Each house may choose its own officers, judge of the qualifications and elections of its own members, and make its own rules. Senators and representatives, during their session, and in going to, and returning from the same, are privileged from arrest in all cases except treason, felony, or breach of the laws, and are not answerable for any thing said in either house, in any other place.

When vacancies happen, the governour shall issue writs of election to fill up such vacancies. Neither house can adjourn for more than three days without the other. Bills may originate in either house—shall have three several readings, and being once rejected, shall not be passed into a law the same session.

The doors of each house shall be kept open.

The salaries of the governour, judges of the supreme court, secretary, treasurer, attornies, and members of the legislature are fixed until 1804.

No person holding an office under the authority of the United States can have a seat in the general assembly, nor can any person hold more than one lucrative office at the same time.

The executive power of the state is vested in a governour, who is chosen by the electors of the members of the legislature; the person having the highest number of votes is chosen. Contested elections for governour are determined by both houses.

The governours are to be chosen bennially, and are eligible six years out of eight—are commanders in chief of the army and navy, except in the service of the United States.

Every freeman of 21 years of age, possessing a freehold in the county, and having been an inhabitant of the state for six months preceding, may vote for the members of the legislature. The house of representatives have the sole power of impeaching, and the senate of trying impeachments. The judicial power is vested in courts of law and equity. County officers, are, sheriffs, coroners, trustees and constables. Military officers are to be elected by persons subject to military duty. Ministers of the gospel are not eligible to a seat in the legislature. No person who denies the existence of God or a future state can hold any civil office. The oath of allegiance and of office is to be taken by persons holding any office of trust or profit.

When two thirds of the general assembly think it necessary to amend or change the constitution they are to recommend to the electors at the next election for members to the general assembly, to vote for a convention, and if there is a majority of votes for it, the general assembly at their next session shall call a convention, which shall consist of as many members as the general assembly, and be chosen in the same manner. They may revise or change the constitution. The constitution closes with a declaration of rights.

Character, Manners, and Dress.] There is nothing in the character of this people, that distinguishes them from the settlers of new countries in general. Among the bulk of the inhabitants, a great simplicity of manners prevails. Duplicity or the etiquette of cities and populous places is unknown among them. If a man deceives another, he is deemed and called a liar; and it frequently happens that "a bloody nose" is the consequence. Wrestling, jumping, running foot races, and playing at ball, are the common diversions. Dancing is coming into fashion. Card-playing is a rare amusement. The hunting-shirt is still worn by the militia on duty, and by hunters in pursuit of game. At home and at publick assemblies, they dress like the Virginians.

Curiosities.] To a northern person, the very height of the corn is a curiosity. In some instances, the ears are set as high up the stalk as a man of common stature can reach. The lime-stones west of Cumberland mountain are almost universally flat, and generally lie in a horizontal position, one stratum under another. On Holston, some are flat and some otherwise; and the flat ones always lie at an angle from the horizon, sometimes vertically, one stratum by the side of another.

The country contains many caves; both the mountainous and other parts. Some of them are dry, and abound with nitrous earth. In others are found a vast variety of stalactites and other petrifactions; and, in some, the adventurous visitant of these dark recesses is stopp d in his progress by a subterranean brook or creek which crosses the cavern.

Under this head I shall also insert an extract of a letter from Mr. Silas Dinsmoor to Governour Blount, dated Oostinahli, (an Indian town) January 2, 1796.

"On my return from South-Carolina, I paid a visit to the Enchanted Mountain, about two miles south of Brasstown,* on the borders of Tennessee, to examine the much famed curiosities on the rocks, and was pleased to find that report so happily coincided with reality.

"There are on several rocks a number of impressions resembling the tracks of turkies, bears, horses, and human beings, as visible and perfect as they could be made on snow or sand. The latter were remarkable for having uniformly six toes each; one only excepted, which appeared to be the print of a negro's foot. By this we must suppose the originals to have been the progeny of Titan or Anak. One of these tracks was very large, the length of the foot 16 inches, the distance of the extremes of the outer toes 13 inches, the proximate

* Brasstown is situated on the head waters of Tennessee river, about 100 miles a little east of south from Knoxville.

breadth behind the toes seven inches, the diameter of the heel-ball five. One of the horse-tracks was likewise of an uncommon size, the transverse and conjugate diameters were 8 by 10 inches, perhaps the horse which the Great Warrior rode.

"There were many other fanciful figures, the meaning of which, if they had any, I could not decypher. If you expect that I shall give a satisfactory account of the origin or occasion of those figures, I doubt you will be disappointed. What appears to me the most in favour of their being the real tracks of the animals they represent, is, the circumstance of a horse's foot having apparently slipped several inches and recovered again, and the figures having all the same direction like the trail of a company on a journey. If it be a *lusus naturæ*, I believe the old dame never sported mose seriously. If the operation of chance, perhaps there was never more apparent design. If it were done by art, it might be to perpetuate the remembrance of some remarkable event of war or engagement fought on the ground. The vast heaps of stones near the place, which I understand are tombs of warriors slain in battle, seem to favour the supposition. The texture of the rocks is soft. The part on which the sun had the greatest influence and which was the most indurated, could easily be cut with a knife, and appeared to be of the nature of the pipe-stone. Some of the Cherokees entertain an opinion that it always rains when any person visits the place, as if sympathetick nature wept at the recollection of the dreadful catastrophe which those figures were intended to commemorate. An old Indian, at whose cabin we called to inquire the way, assured us it would certainly rain. The truth is it was then rainy, and continued so through the day and following night; consequently I was unable to confute the notion, however absurd, by facts.

"I had likewise the curiosity, on my journey, to take a view of the situation of the springs which are said to be the sources of some branches of the Tugulo, Apalachicola, and Hiwassee rivers, which are very near neighbours in the mountains. I rode my horse at a moderate walk, dismounted and drank of the three waters in ten minutes. The situation is in the form of a triangle, the sides perhaps from 150 to 200 yards."

Between Clinch and Cumberland rivers there is a stream large enough to carry a mill, which enters the ground and is seen no more. In this country are mounds or fortifications, which show that once a more industrious and enterprizing people resided here than the present Indians.

Damages by the War.] Great was the damage sustained by the inhabitants of this state, during the war, occasioned by the incursions of the Indians; and it is much to the honour of this patriotick people, that when they were offered protection by the British, in the early stage of the war, they nobly refused it.

Militia.] In 1788, the militia of this district amounted to between 7 and 8,000 effective men, who were principally armed with rifles. It is supposed that their number is increased more than one half since that period.

Revenue.] The publick revenue amounted, in 1788, to about five or 6,000l. raised chiefly by a tax on slaves, lands and horses.

Indians.] The Indian tribes within and in the vicinity of this state are the Cherokees and Chickasaws. The Cherokees have been a warlike and numerous nation ; but by continual wars, in which it has been their destiny to be engaged, with the northern Indian tribes, they were reduced, at the commencement of the last war, to about 2,000 fighting men ; since which they have been reduced more than one half, and have become weak and pusillanimous.

The Chickasaws, of all the Indian tribes within the limits of the United States, merit the most from the Americans, having at all times maintained a brotherly attachment to them. They glory in saying that they never shed the blood of an Anglo American. There is so great an affinity between the Chickasaw and Choctaw languages, that the common people can converse together, each speaking in his own dialect. They are a personable people, and have an openness in their countenances and behaviour, uncommon among savages. These nations say they are the remnant of a great nation that once lived far to the west, which was destroyed by the Spaniards, for whom they still retain an hereditary hatred. Would it not be the policy of Congress to treat with these nations ? and might not their friendship be greatly serviceable to the Union ? A mission from the New-York missionary society has been kindly received here, which promises eminent usefulness to these poor Pagans.

Commerce.] Though the Missisippi is the great outlet, it is thought probable, that trade will one day be carried on by the Mobile, the heads of its boatable waters being not far distant from boatable waters of the Tennessee. By this rout they will arrive at tide water much sooner.

Imported goods have hitherto been brought from Baltimore and Philadelphia, by waggons to the eastern districts ; and for the western by waggons to the Ohio, and then by water. A spirit for exportation is just beginning to operate. Any quantities of goods are exported with ease, as they only go down stream. Importation will be more tedious. This, however, is of small consequence, since almost all weighty articles are supplied at home, and will be in the catalogue of exports rather than of imports ; in particular, salt, sugar, leather, cotton, salt-petre, pot-ash, hemp, all kinds of provisions, spirituous liquors, cabinet work, glass, lead, iron, &c. Glass ware, of all kinds, is already made on the Ohio, whence a supply comes to Mero. The weighty articles which the people of Mero import are generally brought up in barges from New-Orleans. The common burden of the barges, is 20 tons. A barge will require 20 hands to work her up the Missisippi. The trip from Orleans to Nashville will generally take 60 days. Much business is now done in this way.

Garrisons.] There are three garrisons in the state of Tennessee, just within the borders of the Indian lands ; one at South-west Point, and one at Tellico ; the works well constructed and elegant of the kind, and their situations most delightful, surrounded by charming variegated prospects. The former was erected by Col. and the other by Capt. Butler, brothers of the brave Major-General Butler, who fell at St. Clair's defeat. The third garrison is south of Mero, begun in 1800.

Forts Blount, Granger, &c. have now no claim to be mentioned as forts. Nor is it probable, that works of that kind will ever be needed in the same places. And it might not be improper to inquire concerning the utility of the three just mentioned, supported as they are, at so vast an expense; which, in a short time, would produce enough to purchase all the country of the Indians, at a price which would be better for them than to hold the lands. When did hunters ever grow rich?

History.] The country now called Tennessee was included in the second charter granted by king Charles II. to the proprietors of Carolina. In a subsequent division it made a part of North-Carolina. The eastern parts of this district were explored by Cols. Wood, Patton, Buchanan, Capt. Charles Campbell, and Dr. T. Walker, (each of whom were concerned in large grants of land from the government) as early as between the years of 1740 and 1750. In 1754, at the commencement of the French war, not more than 50 families had settled here, who were either destroyed or driven off by the Indians before the close of the following year. It remained uninhabited till 1765, when the settlement of it commenced, and in 1773, (such was the vast accession of emigrants) the country as far west as the long island of Holston, an extent of more than 120 miles in length from east to west, was well peopled.

In 1774, a war broke out with the northern Indians, over the Ohio, which issued in their suing for peace, which was granted them on easy terms.

The year 1776 was signalized by a formidable invasion of the Cherokees, contrived by the British superintendant, Mr. Steuart. Their intention was to depopulate the country as far as the Kanhawa, because this brave people had rejected, with a noble firmness and indignation, the proposals of Henry Steuart and Alexander Camerson for joining the British standard, and were almost unanimous in their resolution to support the measures of Congress. This invasion issued in a total defeat of the Indians. The first appearance of any persons from this district, in the publick council of North-Carolina, was in the convention that formed the constitution of that state in 1776.

In 1780, the tories of the western parts of North-Carolina and Virginia, emboldened by the reduction of Charleston by the British, embodied in armed parties, and proceeded towards the lead mines on the Kanhawa, to take possession of some lead stores at that place, but were defeated in their attempt by the vigilance of Col. A. Campbell and Col. Chockett.

Various other movements took place in the course of this year, but the most interesting and brilliant was the battle of King's Mountain, which was fought and won by about 900 Mountaineers, (as the veteran sons of this district were called) commanded by the brave Gen. William Campbell, against a party of the British under the command of Col. Ferguson. Upwards of 1,100 of the enemy were either killed, wounded or taken; among the former was Col. Ferguson, an officer of distinguished merit.* In arousing the inhabitants, issuing

* See Ramsay's Revol. South-Carolina, Vol. II. page 182

orders, collecting the forces, and in arranging and animating the men, at the place of rendezvous, previous to this successful expedition, much was done by the activity and decision of Col. Arthur Campbell, the senior officer of the district, to whom much praise is due.

Soon after this, to defeat a meditated invasion of the Cherokee Indians, (which was discovered by Nancy Ward, an Indian woman, called, from this circumstance, the western *Pocahontas*) Col. A. Campbell, with 700 Mountaineers, well mounted, penetrated far into the Cherokee country; introduced the new and successful mode of fighting Indians on horseback; accomplished his designs, and returned in January, 1781.

In the celebrated battle at Guilford, March 15, 1781, the Mountaineers, under Gen. W. Campbell, who, on that day, commanded with great applause the left wing of the army, behaved with their usual gallantry. This nearly closed the active part which the Mountain men took in the American war.

In 1782, the legislature of North-Carolina appointed commissioners to explore the western part of the state, (by which is meant as well the lands included in Davidson county, as those between the south boundary of this county and those between the rivers Missisippi and Tennessee) and report to the succeeding legislature, which part was best for the payment of the bounty promised to the officers and soldiers of the continental line of that state; and they accordingly did explore the before described tract of country, and reported to the legislature in the spring of the year 1783. Although this country was not established by law before the last mentioned period, yet in the year 1780, a party of about 40 families, invited by the richness of the Cumberland country, under the guidance and direction of James Robertson, (since Brigadier-General Robertson of Mero district) passed through a wilderness of at least 300 miles to the French Lick, and there founded Nashville. The nearest neighbours to Robertson and his followers, were the settlers of the then infant state of Kentucky, between whom there was a wilderness of 200 miles. He had but few followers until the year 1783, after the peace had taken place, and after an act had passed directing the military or bounty warrants of the officers and soldiers to be located in this country. These circumstances induced many officers and soldiers to repair immediately thither, to secure and settle their lands; and such as did not choose to go, sold their warrants to citizens who did go: in consequence of this, many people from almost every state in the Union became purchasers of these military warrants, and are since become inhabitants of this country; and many valuable and opulent families have removed to it from the Natchez. Remote as Colonel Robertson was from all other settlements, it will readily be supposed that himself and party were in danger every hour of being cut off by the Indians, against whom his principal security was, that he was as far distant from them as from the white people; and slender as this security may appear, his party never sustained any damage from the Indians, but what was done by parties of hunters, who happened to find out his settlements.

In 1785, in conformity to the resolves of Congress of April 23, 1784, the inhabitants of this district attempted to form themselves in-

to a body politick, by the name of the "state of Frankland or Franklin;" but differing among themselves as to the form of government, and about other matters, in the issue of which some blood was shed; and being opposed by some leading characters in the eastern parts, the scheme, in the year 1789, was relinquished, and the inhabitants of this "titular state" returned peaceably to their allegiance; and such of them as were members of the North-Carolina legislature, supported the act, passed this year, ceding the territory, on certain conditions, to the United States.

In 1790, February 25, Congress passed an act accepting this cession, and, by another act passed May 26, 1790, provided for its government under the title of "The Territory of the United States of America South of the river Ohio." On the eighth of June following, the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appointed the Hon. William Blount, Esq. a citizen of North-Carolina, governour in and over the said territory; in which office he continued during the territorial government, and was president of the convention that formed the constitution under the title of "The Constitution of the State of Tennessee," of which we have given an abstract.

The peace of the citizens of this territory has been disturbed many years past, by Indian wars or incursions from the savages for the purposes of murder and plunder. They are now at peace.

In the year 1796, this territory was in due form erected into an independent state, making the *sixteenth* in the Union.

SOUTH-CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 200 Breadth 125	between	4° and 9° west lon. from Phila. 78° and 81° west lon. from Lond. 32° and 35° north lat.	24,000. Of which 9570 are above the falls of the rivers.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by North-Carolina; east, by the Atlantick Ocean; south and south-west, by Savannah river, and a branch of its head waters, called Tugulo river, which divide this state from Georgia; and N. W. by a part of Tennessee. In form, this state nearly resembles a triangle, which extends along the sea-coast above 200 miles. Georgia on the south, and North-Carolina on the north, approximate to each other about 300 miles from the sea-coast, so as nearly to form an angle inclosing the whole state.

Civil Divisions and Population.] The proprietors who first sent settlers to Carolina, divided it into counties and parishes. The counties are generally named after the proprietors. No county courts, however, were established, and this division, though for a long time kept up in the province, became in a great measure obsolete, previous to the

revolution. Since the revolution, county courts have been established, where a majority of the inhabitants have petitioned for them.

The nine districts which formerly composed the whole state, have lately been thrown into 26 subdivisions, in which some of the ancient names are lost. The present judicial districts are as follow, viz. Charleston district, consisting of its former parishes with the exception of 3, viz. St. George's Dorchester, St. Bartholomews and St. Pauls. These compose Colleton district, of which Jacksonborough is the capital. Beaufort district remains unaltered in its limits. Barnwell district comprehends Winton county and part of Orange, carved out of Orangeburgh district, and lies between South Edisto and Savannah rivers. Orangeburgh district is composed of the remaining counties of Orange, Lewisburgh and Lexington, and now bounds S. W. by South Edisto river. Ninety-six district has lost its name. The four counties of which it consisted, are now erected into districts, called by their county names; Edgefield district, Abbeville district, Newbury district and Laurens district. Washington district is also lost; its counties, viz. Greenville and Pendleton are erected into districts of the same names. The four counties of Pinckney district are now, each of them, a separate district, called Spartanburgh district, Union district, York district and Chester district. Pinckney district is no more. The name of Camden district is also abolished; four of its counties, viz. Lancaster, Fairfield, Richland and Kershaw, are now erected into districts of the same names. The three remaining counties of the old district, viz. Clarendon, Claremont and Salem are erected into one district called Sumpter district. Cheraw district is now thrown into three districts, called Chesterfield district, Marlborough district and Darlington district, according to the limits of the three counties of these names. The old district name is lost. Horry district. This was formerly Kingston county, a part of Georgetown district. The name of the town of Kingston is changed to Conwayborough. Marion district is formed of another portion of Georgetown district, the northerly part. Georgetown district comprehends the residue of the old district. The population of these districts is as in the following table.

Districts.	No. Inhab.	No. Slaves.	Districts.	No. Inhab.	No. Slaves.
Charleston	57,480	41,945	Pendleton	20,052	2,224
Colleton	24,903	20,471	Greenville	11,504	1,439
Beaufort	20,428	16,031	Spartanburgh	12,122	1,467
Georgetown	22,938	16,568	Union	10,235	1,697
Orangeburgh	15,766	5,356	Edgefield	18,130	5,006
Sumpter	13,103	6,563	Abberville	13,553	2,964
Marion	6,914	2,155	Richland	6,097	3,033
Barnwell	7,376	1,690	Lancaster	5,012	1,076
York	10,248	1,804	Kershaw	7,340	2,530
Chester	8,185	1,164	Newberry	12,006	2,204
Fairfield	10,097	1,968	Cheraw	18,299	4,877
Laurens	12,809	1,919			
			Total 1800,	345,591	146,151
			Total 1790,	249,073	
			Increase	96,518	

Climate.] The climate is different in different parts of the state. Along the sea-coast, bilious diseases and fevers of various kinds are prevalent between July and October. The probability of dying is much greater between the 20th of June and the 20th of October, than in the other eight months in the year.

One cause of these diseases is, a low marshy country, which is overflowed for the sake of cultivating rice. The exhalations from these stagnated waters, from the rivers, and from the neighbouring ocean, and the profuse perspiration of vegetables of all kinds, which cover the ground, fill the air with moisture. This moisture falls in frequent rains and copious dews. From actual observation, it has been found that the average annual fall of rain, for ten years, was 42 inches, without regarding the moisture that fell in fogs and dews. The great heat of the day relaxes the body, and the agreeable coolness of the evening invites to an exposure to these heavy dews. But not only does the water on the low grounds and rice swamps become in a degree putrid, and emit an unwholesome vapour, but when it is dried up or drawn off from the surface of the ground, a quantity of weeds and grass which have been rotted by the water, and animals and fish which have been destroyed by it, are exposed to the intense heat of the sun, and help to infect the air with a quantity of poisonous effluvia. Within the limits of Charleston, the case is very different, and the danger of contracting diseases arises from indolence and excess. Though a residence in or near the swamps is very injurious to health, yet it has been satisfactorily ascertained, that by removing three miles from them, into the pine land which occupies the middle ground between the rivers, an exemption from autumnal fevers may be obtained.

The disagreeable effects of this climate, experience has proved, might in a great measure be avoided by those inhabitants whose circumstances will admit of their removal from the neighbourhood of the rice swamps to healthier situations, during the months of July, August, September and October; and in the worst situations, by temperance and care. Violent exercise, on horseback chiefly, exposure to the meridian rays of the sun, sudden showers of rain, and the night air, are too frequently the causes of fevers, and other disorders. Would the sportsmen deny themselves, during the fall months, their favourite amusements of hunting and fishing, or confine themselves to a very few hours, in the morning or evening—would the industrious planter visit his fields only at the same hours—or would the poorer class of people pay due attention to their manner of living, and observe the precautions recommended to them by men of knowledge and experience, much sickness and many distressing events might be prevented. The upper country, situated in the medium between extreme heat and cold, is as healthful as any part of the United States.

Rivers.] This state is watered by four large navigable rivers, besides a great number of smaller ones, which are passable in boats. The river Savannah washes it in its whole length from south-east to north-west. The Edisto rises in two branches from a remarkable ridge in the interior part of the state. These branches unite below Orangeburg, which stands on the North Fork, and form Edisto river,

which having passed Jacksonburg, leaving it on the south, branches and embraces Edisto island.

Santee is the largest and longest river in this state. It empties into the ocean by two mouths, a little south of Georgetown. About 120 miles in a direct line from its mouth, it branches into the Congaree and Wateree; the latter or northern branch passes the Catawba nation of Indians, and bears the name of the Catawba river from this settlement to its source. The Congaree branches into Saluda and Broad rivers. Broad river again branches into Enoree, Tyger and Pacolet rivers; on the latter of which are the celebrated Pacolet Springs. Thirteen years ago, two boats only were employed in the trade between Charleston and Congaree river. Now (March, 1796) about 20 are employed.

Pedee river rises in North-Carolina, where it is called Yadkin river. In this state, however, it takes the name of Pedee, and, receiving the waters of Lynche's creek, Little Pedee, and Black river, it joins the Wakkamaw river, near Georgetown. These united streams, with the accession of a small creek, on which Georgetown stands, form Winyaw Bay, which, about 12 miles below, communicates with the ocean. All the forementioned rivers, except Edisto, rise from various sources in that ridge of mountains, which divides the waters which flow into the Atlantick Ocean from those which fall into the Missisippi.

The rivers of a secondary size, as you pass from north to south, are Wakkamaw, Black river, Cooper, Ashepoo, and Combahee. These rivers afford to the proprietors of their banks a considerable quantity of tide swamp, or rice land, flowable from the rivers, except in extraordinary droughts.

In the third class are comprehended those rivers which extend but a short distance from the ocean, and serve by branching into numberless creeks, as drains to take off the quantity of rain water, which comes down from the large inland swamps; or are merely arms of the sea. Of this kind are Ashley, Stono, Coosaw, Broad, Colleton, May, New, and Right's rivers. The tide, in no part of the state, flows more than 25 miles from the sea.

*Inland Navigation.**] Few countries enjoy more favourable situations for inland navigation, than South-Carolina. From Georgetown to Savannah in Georgia, along almost the whole extent of our sea coast, the navigation may be carried on inland, in boats of burden; with only some few exceptions, caused mostly by bays and sounds, which are to be crossed. From the westward and southward, all the riches of those lands, which are situated upon, or near the waters of Savannah, Keowee, or Tugulo rivers, may be brought down by opening a canal between the waters of Savannah and South Edisto rivers. From Edisto river, the navigation will be safe to Charleston. But, it would be more direct, by cutting a canal from the the Edisto into Ashley river above Dorchester; in which case, the country produce, from those places, and also from all those lands, connected with the northern branch of Edisto river, would be brought to Charleston by water,

* From Gov. Dayton's view of South-Carolina.

in the nearest possible distance. The legislature, in the year 1787, noticed this advantage; and incorporated a company for opening the navigation between the Edisto and Ashley. From the northward, all the produce from the country, which lies convenient to the Wakkamaw, Pedee, and Black rivers, and to Downing creek, in North-Carolina, may be safely brought to Georgetown: and from thence inland to Charleston; by opening the navigation from Georgetown bay, to North Santee, between Ford's island and the main; and by shortening the many windings of Musquito creek. And from the westward, all the produce of the country, situated near the waters and rivers which fall into the Santee, may be transported directly to Charleston, through the Santee canal, communicating with Cooper river;* or for boats of heavy burden, a safe inland navigation is used from South Santee, through Alligator creek, and thence between the islands, until they arrive at Charleston. The Santee canal is said to be at least equal to any work of the kind, in the United States; and it has been made, by virtue of a law, passed by the legislature in the year 1786, incorporating a company for that purpose. By this law, the proprietors are prohibited from demanding a greater toll, than twenty-five per cent. per annum, on the money which shall be expended in making and keeping the same in repair. The company are vested with power to establish a ferry over Santee river, at or near the place, where the canal shall join it; and to lay out a road from thence, until it intersect the publick road, leading from the High Hills of Santee. By the same law, it is declared to be death to those who shall wilfully break, or destroy any part of the canal.

This important work has been laid out, and conducted with much ability, and success, by Colonel John Christian Senf, engineer to this state, and director to the company. It was begun in 1792, and finished in 1800; at an expense of not less than 150,000 pounds sterling. The length of this canal is 21 miles. The greatest elevation of ground between the two rivers is 19 feet. This canal, is thirty-five feet wide at the top, sloping down on each side to a width of twenty feet at the bottom; and is calculated to contain a depth of four feet water, capable of passing boats of twenty-two tons. On each side of it are tracking paths, for horses to draw the boats; and along the canal, at proper distances, are two double locks and six single ones, whose supply of water is drawn from different reservoirs along the course of the canal. The locks are constructed of brick and stone; and are of a length, and breadth, competent for passing boats fifty-four feet long, and nine feet wide.

In many instances, the rivers and creeks have been cleared of trees and rocks, and the navigation assisted in different parts of the state; but, this canal is the only work of consequence, which hitherto has been effected, towards so desireable a purpose. Some attempts

* "The first passage of a boat, entirely through the Santee canals was about July, 1800, when a boat went from Charleston to Granby with a load of salt; and another to Camden. Since that time, boats bringing from sixty to ninety bales of cotton, have passed from the middle country through this canal, to Charleston; when the river was so low, that large boats could not attempt its navigation."

were made, under legislative sanction, to open the navigation of the Catawba river at Rocky mount; and it was proceeded in so far, as to clear a channel, some distance in the river, by blowing up rocks; and a stone lock was nearly effected: it was discontinued, however, by the failure of means for its support. The company are now preparing to recommence their operations;* and when the same are completed above the falls of the river at Rocky Mount, the navigation of the Catawba may then be opened, without any heavy expense, so far as Hill and Hayne's iron works; and from thence to the state boundary line. The advantages hence arising, are incalculable; as the riches and produce of a great part of the upper country of North-Carolina, may, and probably will, be thus easily transported to Charleston; the encouragement to agriculture, and the increase of property, will be great; the iron, the lead, and salt petre of the upper country will be easily attainable; and an opportunity will be offered of establishing an arsenal and works connected with it, on a scale either for this state, or the United States, at Rocky Mount, or its vicinity: A situation, at which it is supposed works of the kind may be established to much advantage; and one, which will be extremely convenient for all the southern states.†

The companies, which are at present incorporated by the legislature of this state, for opening its inland navigation, are "the company for the inland navigation from Santee to Cooper river," established in 1786. "The company for improving the navigation of Edisto and Ashley rivers; and making a communication by a canal and locks, from one to the other of the said rivers," in 1787. And "the company for opening the navigation of the Catawba and Wateree rivers," also in 1787.

Bridges.] A bridge has lately been erected over the Congaree river, at a small town called Granby, about two miles below the confluence of Broad and Saluda rivers. This is a remarkable bridge, being built in a curvilineal direction, with the arch up the stream, which contributes much to its strength. It is 40 feet above the ordinary level of the water. The bridge is supported by wooden pillars which are strong, framed into water sills, which are bolted into a solid rock that extends across the river. These bolts are secured in the rock by running into the interstices round the bolts large quantities of melted lead. The great height of the bridge was requisite to secure it from the freshets which rise here to a great degree; the current of which is so rapid as to carry before it every thing which should present to its fury any considerable surface. The centre arch is upwards of 100 feet in the clear, to give a passage to large trees, which are always brought down by the floods in great abundance, and would

* A canal is to be cut from Rocky Creek, about three miles and a half, until a communication be made with the Catawba, above the Great Falls; and the navigation from thence to North-Carolina, it is supposed, may be effected for 90 000 dollars.

† Instructions have been issued from the secretary of the war department, to lieut. col. Senf, directing him, in conjunction with Gen. Sumpter, to select a suitable site for a magazine and armory, at or near Rocky Mount; in consequence a site has been reported to that department, situated at the great falls of the Catawba river, as fully answering all the purposes of such establishment.

otherwise, by lodging against the bridge, prove fatal to it, as was the case with one, some few years since, which had been erected in the same place. For this useful work the country is indebted to an enterprizing and valuable citizen, Col. Wade Hampton, who has a right of toll secured to him by the legislature for one hundred years.

Another bridge was erected by the same citizen a few years ago over the Savannah River at Augusta, but not being raised so high, nor so well secured in the foundation, it received considerable injury, but was however passable, and was rebuilding by the proprietor, and his right to toll was secured to him in perpetuity by the legislatures of the two states, Georgia and South-Carolina; but it was unfortunately carried away by the remarkable freshet which happened in the fall of 1795.

A good waggon road from the settlements in South-Carolina to Knoxville, in Tennessee, across the mountains is opening under the patronage of the legislatures of the two states.

Mountains.] Except the high hills of Santee, the Ridge, and some few other hills, this country is like one extensive plain, till you reach the Tryon and Hogback mountains, 220 miles north-west of Charleston. The elevation of these mountains above their base, is 3,840 feet, and above the sea-coast, 4640. There is exhibited from the top of these mountains an extensive view of this state, North-Carolina, and Georgia. And as no object intervenes to obstruct the view, a man with *telescopick* eyes might discern vessels at sea. The mountains west and north-west rise much higher than these, and form a ridge, which divides the waters of Tennessee and Santee rivers.

Harbours.] The only harbours of note are those of Charleston, Port-Royal, and Georgetown. The intended building of a light-house at the entrance of Georgetown (on North-Island) will improve the trade, and diminish much the risk of entering this improving town. Charleston harbour is spacious, convenient and safe. It is formed by the junction of Ashley and Cooper rivers. Its entrance is guarded by Fort Johnson. Twelve miles from the city is a bar, over which are four channels; one by the name of Ship-Channel, has 18 feet water; another 16½; the other two are for smaller vessels. The tides rise from five to eight feet. Port-Royal has an excellent harbour, of sufficient extent to contain the largest fleet in the world.

The bar at the entrance of Winyaw bay, which leads to Georgetown, does not admit vessels drawing more than 11 feet water; and is in many respects a very dangerous place. This circumstance has proved injurious to the growth of Georgetown, which is otherwise exceedingly well situated for all the purposes of an extensive trade.

Islands.] The sea coast is bordered with a chain of fine sea islands, around which the sea flows, opening an excellent inland navigation, for the conveyance of produce to market.

North of Charleston harbour, lie Bull's, Dewee's and Sullivan's, islands, which form the north part of the harbour. James' island lies on the other side of the harbour, opposite Charleston, containing about 50 families. Further south-west is John's island, larger than James'; Stono river, which forms a convenient and safe harbour,

divides these islands. Contiguous to John's island, and connected with it, by a bridge, is Wadmelaw; east of which are the small i es of Keywaw and Simmon. Between these and Edisto island, is North Edisto inlet, which also affords a good harbour for vessels of easy draft of water. South of Edisto island, is South Edisto inlet, through which enter, from the northward, all the vessels bound to Beaufort, Asheepoo, Combahee and Coosaw.

On the south-west side of St. Helena island lies a cluster of islands, one of the largest of which is Port Royal. Adjacent to Port Royal lie St. Helena, Ladies island, Paris island, and the Hunting islands, five or six in number, bordering on the ocean, so called from the number of deer and other wild game found upon them. All these islands, and some others of less note belong to St. Helena parish.

Crossing Broad river, you come to Hilton Head, the most southern sea island in Carolina. West and south-west of Hilton Head, lie Pinckney's, Bull's, Dawsuskies and some smaller islands, between which and Hilton Head, are Calibogie river and sound, which form the outlet of May and New rivers.

The soil on these islands is generally better adapted to the culture of indigo and cotton than the main, and less suited to rice. The natural growth is the live oak, which is so excellent for ship timber; and the palmetto or cabbage tree, the utility of which, in the construction of forts, was experienced during the late war.

Chief Towns.] Charleston is the only considerable town in South-Carolina. It is situated on the tongue of land which is formed by the confluence of Ashley and Cooper rivers, which are large and navigable. These rivers mingle their waters immediately below the town, and form a spacious and convenient harbour, which communicates with the ocean just below Sullivan's island, which it leaves on the north, seven miles south-east of the town. In these rivers the tide rises, in common, about 6½ feet.* The continued agitation which this occasions in the waters which almost surround Charleston—the refreshing sea breezes which are regularly felt, and the smoke rising from so many chimnies, render Charleston more healthy than any part of the low country in the southern states. On this account it is the resort of great numbers of gentlemen, invalids from the West-India islands, and of the rich planters from the country, who come here to spend the *sickly months*, as they are called, in quest of health and of the social enjoyments which the city affords. And in no part of America are the social blessings enjoyed more rationally and liberally than in Charleston. Unaffected hospitality, affability, ease in manners and address, and a disposition to make their guests welcome, easy and pleased with themselves, are characteristicks of the respectable people in Charleston.

The land on which the town is built is flat and low, and the water brackish and unwholesome. The streets from east to west extend from river to river, and, running in a straight line, not only open

* It is worthy of remark that the tide uniformly rises considerably higher in the night than in the day; often from 10 to 12 inches. The fact is certain; the cause is unknown.

beautiful prospects each way, but afford excellent opportunities, by means of subterranean drains, for removing all nuisances, and keeping the city clean and healthy. These streets are intersected by others, nearly at right angles, and throw the town into a number of squares, with dwelling-houses in front, and office-houses and little gardens behind. Some of the streets are conveniently wide, but most of them are much too narrow, especially for so populous a city, in so warm a climate. Besides their being a nursery for various diseases from their confined situation, they have been found extremely inconvenient in case of fires, the destructive effects of which have been frequently felt in this city. The houses, which have been lately built are brick with tiled roofs. Some of the buildings in Charleston are elegant and most of them are neat, airy and well furnished. The publick buildings are, an exchange, state-house, lately rebuilt, armory, poor house, two large churches for Episcopalians, two for Congregationalists or Independents, one of these lately built is of brick, of a circular form, the diameter of the circle, within the walls, 88 feet, an elegant edifice, erected at an expense of more than 30,000 dollars; one for Scotch Presbyterians, one for Baptist, one for German Lutherans, two for the Methodists, (a large house for worship, being lately finished by them) one for French Protestants, besides a meeting-house for Quakers, a Roman Catholick chapel and a Jewish synagogue.

But little attention is paid to the publick markets. A great proportion of the most wealthy inhabitants have plantations, from which they receive supplies of almost every article of living. The country abounds with poultry and wild ducks. Their beef, mutton and veal are not of the best kind. Few fish are brought to market.

In 1787, it was computed that there were 1600 houses in this city, and 9600 white inhabitants, and 5400 negroes; and what evinces the healthiness of the place, upwards of 200 of the white inhabitants were above 60 years of age. In 1791, there were 16,359 inhabitants, of whom 7684 were slaves; in 1800, 18,712, of whom 9053 were slaves.

Charleston was incorporated in 1783, and divided into 13 wards, which choose as many wardens, from among whom the citizens elect an Intendant of the city. The Intendant and wardens form the city council, who have power to make and enforce by-laws for the regulation of the city.

From this city through Jacksonborough, Pokatatigo and Purysburg, to Savannah, is 114 miles.

Beaufort, on Port Royal Island, is a pleasant little town, of about 50 or 60 houses, and 200 inhabitants, who are distinguished for their hospitality and politeness. The courts which were formerly held here are now held at Coosawhatchie.

Georgetown, the seat of justice in Georgetown district, 61 miles north-east of Charleston, stands on a spot of land near the junction of a number of rivers, which, when united in one broad stream, by the name of Winyaw, fall into the ocean 12 miles below the town.

Columbia, which has lately been made the seat of government, by the legislature, stands just below the junction of Saluda and Broad

rivers, on the Congaree. The publick offices have, however, in some instances, been divided, for the accomodation of the inhabitants of the lower counties, and a branch of each retained in Charleston.

The South-Carolina college is building here: 50,000 dollars have been appropriated, beside 6000 per annum for the support of the faculty.

Camden, on the Wateree, north-west of Santee Hills, 130 miles west of north from Charleston, is regularly built, upon a good plan; but a small part of it only is yet executed.

Purysburg is a hilly village, 17 miles above Savannah, on the north bank of the river of the same name. It was early settled by foreigners, with a view to the culture of silk, which for a while they attended to with spirit. The mulberry trees are yet standing, and some attention is still paid to the making of silk. But the profits of the rice and indigo soon diverted the original planters from almost every other pursuit. Besides these, are Jacksonborough, Orangeburg, Wynnsborough and Cambridge, which are all inconsiderable villages of from 30 to 60 dwelling-houses.

General Face of the Country.] The whole state to the distance of 80 or 100 miles from the sea, generally speaking, is low and level, almost without a stone, and abounds, more or less, especially on and near the rivers, with swamps or marshes, which, when cleared and cultivated, yield, in favourable seasons, on average, an annual income of from 20 to 40 dollars from each acre, and often much more; but this species of soil cannot be cultivated by white men, without risking both health and life. These swamps do not cover a hundredth part of the state of Carolina. In this distance, by a gradual ascent from the sea-coast, the land rises about 190 feet. Here, if you proceed in a W. N. W. course from Charleston, commences a curiously uneven country. The traveller is constantly ascending or descending little sand hills, which nature seems to have disunited in a frolick. If a pretty high sea were suddenly arrested, and transformed into sand hills, in the very form the waves existed at the moment of transformation, it would present the eye with just such a view as is here to be seen. Some little herbage, and a few small pines grow even on this soil. The inhabitants are few, and have but a scanty subsistence on corn and sweet potatoes, which grow here tolerably well. This curious country continues till you arrive at a place called *The Ridge*, 140 miles from Charleston. This ridge is a remarkable tract of high ground, as you approach it from the sea, but level as you advance north-west from its summit. It is a fine high, healthy belt of land, well watered, and of a good soil, and extends from the Savannah to Broad river, in about 6° 30′ west lon. from Philadelphia. Beyond this ridge, commences a country exactly resembling the northern states, or like Devonshire in England, or Languedoc in France. Here hills and dales, with all their verdure and variegated beauty, present themselves to the eye. Wheat fields, which are rare in the low country, begin to grow common. Here Heaven has bestowed its blessings with a most bounteous hand. The air is much more temperate and healthful, than nearer to the sea. The hills are covered with valuable woods—the vallies watered with beautiful rivers, and the

fertility of the soil is equal to every vegetable production. This, by way of distinction is called the Upper Country, where are different modes, and different articles of cultivation; where the manners of the people, and even their language, have a different tone. The land still rises by a gradual ascent; each succeeding hill overlooks that which immediately precedes it, till, having advanced 220 miles in a north-west direction from Charleston, the elevation of the land above the sea-coast is found by mensuration to be 800 feet. Here commences a mountainous country, which continues rising to the western terminating point of this state.

Soil and Productions.] The soil may be divided into four kinds; *first*, the pine barren, which is valuable only for its timber. Interspersed among the pine barren, are tracts of land free of timber, and every kind of growth but that of grass. These tracts are called *Savannas*, constituting a *second* kind of soil, good for grazing. The *third* kind is that of the swamps and low grounds on the rivers, which is a mixture of black loam and fat clay, producing naturally canes in great plenty, cypress, bays, loblolly pines, &c. In these swamps rice is cultivated, which constitutes the staple commodity of the state. The high lands, commonly known by the name of oak and hickory lands, constitute the *fourth* kind of soil. The natural growth is oak, hickory, walnut, pine and locust. On these lands, in the low country, are cultivated Indian corn principally; and in the back country, besides these, they raise tobacco in large quantities, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, and cotton. From experiments which have been made, it is well ascertained, that olives, silk and madder, may be as abundantly produced in South-Carolina, and we may add in Georgia also, as in the south of France.

There is little fruit in this state, especially in the lower parts of it. They have oranges, which are chiefly sour, and figs in plenty; a few limes and lemons, pomegranates, pears and peaches. Apples are scarce, and are imported from the northern states. Melons, (especially the watermelon) are raised here in great perfection.

The river swamps, in which the rice can be cultivated with any tolerable degree of safety and success, do not extend higher up the river than the head of the tides; and in estimating the value of this species of rice land, the height to which the tide rises is taken into consideration, those lying where it rises to a proper pitch for overflowing the swamps being the most valuable. The best inland swamps, which constitute a second species of rice land, are such as are furnished with reserves of water. These reserves are formed by means of large banks thrown up at the upper parts of the swamps, whence it is conveyed, when needed, to the fields of rice.

At the distance of about 110 miles from the sea, the river swamps terminate, and the high lands extend quite to the rivers, and form banks in some places, several hundred feet high from the surface of the water, and afford many extensive and delightful views. These high banks are interwoven with layers of leaves and different coloured earth, and abound with quarries of free-stone, pebbles, flint, crystals, iron ore in abundance, silver, lead, sulphur and coarse diamonds.

The swamps above the head of the tide, are occasionally planted with corn, cotton and indigo. The soil is very rich, yielding from 40 to 50 bushels of corn an acre.

It is curious to observe the gradations from the sea-coast to the upper country, with respect to the produce, the mode of cultivation, and the cultivators. On the islands upon the sea-coast, and for 40 or 50 miles back, (and on the rivers much farther) the cultivators are all slaves. No white man, to speak generally, ever thinks of settling a farm and improving it for himself, without negroes. If he has no negroes, he hires himself as overseer to some rich planter, who has more than he can or will attend to, till he can purchase for himself. The articles cultivated are corn, rye, oats, every species of pulse, and potatoes, which, with the small rice, are food for the negroes; rice, indigo, cotton, and some hemp, for exportation. The culture of cotton is capable of being increased equal to almost any demand. The soil was cultivated, till lately, almost wholly by manual labour. The plough, till since the peace, was scarcely used. Now, the plough and harrow, and other improvements are introduced into the rice swamps with great success, and will no doubt become general. In the middle settlements, negroes are not so numerous. The master attends personally to his own business. The land is not properly situated for rice. It produces moderately good indigo weed, and some tobacco is raised for exportation. The farmer is contented to raise corn, potatoes, oats, rye, poultry, and a little wheat. In the upper country, there are but few negroes; generally speaking, the farmers have none, and depend, like the inhabitants of the northern states, upon the labour of themselves and families for subsistence; the plough is used almost wholly. Indian corn in great quantities, wheat, rye, barley, oats, potatoes, &c. are raised for food, and tobacco, wheat, cotton, hemp, flax and indigo, for exportation. From late experiments, it has been found that vines may be cultivated, and wine made to great advantage; snake-root, pink-root, and a variety of medicinal herbs grow spontaneously; also, ginseng on and near the mountains.

Mode of cultivating Rice.] Rice ground is prepared only by effectually securing it from the water, except some higher parts of it, which are sometimes dug up with a hoe, or mellowed by a plough or harrow. When the rice is young, the overflowing of the water does not prevent its growth. Those who have water in reserve, commonly let it in upon their rice, after first going through with the hoe, while it is young, though it is deemed best to keep out the grass without this aid, by the hoe only. The water is commonly kept on the rice eight or ten days after hoing. When the ear is formed the water is continued on till it is ripe. It is hoed three or four times. When the grass is very thick, a negro cannot hoe more than one sixteenth of an acre in a day. From three pecks to a bushel is sown on an acre. It produces from 50 to 80 bushels of rough rice an acre: 120 bushels of rough rice have been produced on 1 acre; 20 bushels of which make about 500 pounds, or eight and a quarter bushels clean rice for market. After it is threshed, it is winnowed, and then ground in a mill, constructed of two blocks in a simple manner; then winnowed by a fan, constructed for that purpose; then beat in

a mortar by hand, or now generally by a horse or water machine; then sifted, to separate the whole rice from that which is broken and the flour. The whole rice is then barrelled in casks of about 500 pounds, or eight and a quarter bushels. The small rice serves for provisions, and the flour for provender, the chaff for manure, and the straw for fodder. The blade is green and fresh while the ear is ripe. The price is from 9/4 to 10/6 a hundred—dollars 4/8.

Natural History.] "In the beginning of August, 1795, the skeleton of a gigantick animal was discovered in digging the canal between Cooper and Santee rivers in South-Carolina, at the depth of nine feet in the ground. Ages must have passed away since that monster died. From the appearance of the skeleton, this animal must have far surpassed any now known to exist on this continent. From the formation of his teeth, this must have been a carnivorous creature, and doubtless the same with the mammoth, skeletons of which are frequently found near the salt licks in Virginia. At the same place were found the tusks of an elephant, and two teeth of the graminivorous kind, which proves this creature to have been in ancient times an inhabitant of America, contrary to the received opinion of naturalists. The remains of the mammoth and elephant being thus found on one spot, renders it probable that they both perished in an obstinate combat. The natural vegetation of the soil in the lower parts of Carolina, is computed to raise the general surface about one sixth of an inch annually, consequently it has taken 648 years to produce a soil of nine feet depth over these skeletons; and they must have perished in the year of Christ 1147, or 345 years before the discovery of America by the Europeans. It is remarkable that among these bones were found the arm bone of a man, in a state of petrifaction.

"This country abounds with precious ores, such as gold, silver, lead, black lead, copper and iron; but it is the misfortune of those who direct their pursuits in search of them, that they are deficient in the knowledge of chymistry, and too frequently make use of improper menstruums in extracting the respective metals. There are likewise to be found pellucid stones of different hues, rock crystal, pyrites, petrified substances, coarse cornelian, marble, beautifully variegated, vitreous stone and vitreous sand; red and yellow ochres, which, when roasted and ground down with linseed oil, make a very excellent paint; also, potter's clay, of a most delicate texture, fuller's earth, and a number of die-stuffs, among which is a singular weed which yields four different colours, its leaves are surprisingly styptick, strongly resembling the taste of alum; likewise, an abundance of chalk, crude alum, sulphur, nitre, vitriol, and along the banks of rivers large quantities of marle may be collected.

"There are also a variety of roots, the medicinal effects of which it is the barbarous policy of those who are in the secret to keep a profound mystery. The rattle-snake root, so famous amongst the Indians for the cure of poison, is of the number. The next is the venereal root, which, under a vegetable regimen, will cure a confirmed lues. Another root, when reduced to an impalpable powder, is singularly efficacious in destroying worms in children. There is like-

wise a root, an ointment of which, with a poultice of the same, will in a short space of time discuss the most extraordinary tumours, particularly what is termed the white swelling; this root is very scarce. There is another root, a decoction of which, in new milk, will cure the bloody dysentery; the patient must avoid cold, and much judgment is requisite in the potion to be administered. There is also a plant, the leaves of which being bruised, and applied to the part affected, relieves rheumatick pains; it occasions a considerable agitation of the parts, attended with most violent and acute pains, but never fails to procure immediate ease. There is also a plant, the leaves of which have a most fetid smell; these leaves being boiled, any person afflicted with cutaneous complaints, once bathing therein, will be radically cured. There is a root, which acts as an excellent purge, and is well calculated for the labouring part of mankind, as it is only necessary to chew it in its crude state, and it requires no manner of aid to facilitate its operation. An equally efficacious and simple purge is obtained from a weed, the stalk of which is red, is about three feet high, and the flower white; the leaves run from the bottom of the stalk in opposite and corresponding lines; the seed is about the size of a wheat grain, globular in the centre, and oblate at both ends; it is full of oil, and tastes like a walnut kernel: 20 grains of this chewed and swallowed, is, in point of mildness and efficacy, equal to any rhubarb; and the pleasantness of its taste, as a deception to weak stomachs, appears to have been a design of Providence: In its operation it resembles castor oil. A very sovereign remedy is extracted from the bark of a tree, which may be used to great advantage in the diseases incident to this climate. Every climate, some believe, has its peculiar disease, and every disease its peculiar antidote under the same climate. In addition to the above, is another species of bark, of a sweet and nauseous taste; the tree grows contiguous to a very powerful chalybeate spring; the bark, when sufficiently masticated, operates as a very potent purge and emetick, and in the hands of a skilful chymist may be rendered very serviceable.

"In this country is a tree which bears a large pod, inclosing a kind of mucilage, the juice of which is very sharp; the bark smells like tanned leather, and when prepared like hemp, makes the very best of cordage. Also another tree, which bears an ear like a corn cob, covered with berries, containing a large proportion of oil. There is likewise a very singular tree, which affords a most superb shade; it produces a round ball, which, in the heat of summer, opens and enlarges a number of male insects, which become very troublesome wherever they lodge; this happens generally some distance from their parent tree.

"I cannot but express my surprise (says our author) at the contempt in which the culture of vines is held by the inhabitants of this state. The whole country is over-run with the growth of the spontaneous grapes. I had the curiosity to take the altitude of a mountain, which I found to be a quarter and a half quarter of a mile high; and on ascending the south side I found it covered with a profusion of purple grapes, of a most delicious flavour, and had they been transplanted, I do believe they would produce a very delicate wine. Last season I

made the experiment of some French vines, and their luxuriance beggars all description. The hand of nature never formed a country with more natural advantages, or blessed it with a more serene or healthful climate. It abounds with game of all kinds, is a very fine fruit country, and is peculiarly adapted to to the growth of vines, the olive, silk, and coffee trees, and the production of cotton. It is a perfect garden of medical herbs, and its medicinal springs are not inferior to any in Europe," [*M. Barrett.*]

Iron Works.] The iron works, known by the name of the *Æra Ætna iron-works* are situated in York county, within two miles of the Catawba river. Within the compass of two miles from the furnace, there is an inexhaustible quantity of ore, which works easy and well in the furnace. The metal is good for hammers, gudgeons, or any kind of machinery and hollow ware, and will make good bar iron. Some trial has been made of it in steel, and it promises well. Nothing is necessary for preparing the ore for use, but burning. The ore consists of large rocks above the surface; the depth not yet known. In the cavities between, lie an ochre and seed ore. It is said there will be no occasion to sink shafts or drive levels for 50 years to come. The Æra furnace was built in 1787—the Ætna in 1788.

The nearest landing, in 1795, was Camden, 70 miles from the furnace. The proprietors of the works, and seven others have obtained a charter to open the Catawba to the North-Carolina line, and a charter from North-Carolina to open the river 80 miles higher in that state, and it was expected that boats would come within 40 miles of the works in the summer of 1795, as there were boats then built for the purpose, which carry 30 tons, and in the course of the next summer it was expected would be brought within two miles of the works. The works are within two miles of the river, and the creek can be made navigable to the works.

Mr. William Hill, one of the principal proprietors of these works, has contrived a method, by means of a fall of water, of blowing all the fires both of the forges and furnaces, so as to render unnecessary the use of wheels, cylinders or any other kinds of bellows. The machinery is simple and cheap, and not liable to the accident of freezing.

Manufactures.] In the middle, and especially in the upper country, the people are obliged to manufacture their own cotton and woollen cloths, and most of their husbandry tools; but in the lower country, the inhabitants, for these articles, depend almost entirely on their merchants. Late accounts from the interior parts of this state inform that cotton, hemp and flax are plenty; that they have a considerable stock of good sheep; that great exertions are made, and much done in the household way; that they have long been in the habit of doing something in family manufactures, but within a few years past great improvements have been made. The women do the weaving, and leave the men to attend to agriculture.

In Feb. 1755, Charles Pinckney, Esq. a member of the Council in South-Carolina, presented the Princess of Wales, at Leicester House, with a piece of silk damask, of the growth and produce of his own plantation in South-Carolina, and died a fine blue with Carolina indigo.

This state furnishes all the materials, and of the best kind, for ship building. The live oak, and the pitch and yellow pines, are of a superior quality. Ships might be built here with more ease, and to much greater advantage, than in the middle and eastern states. A want of seamen, is one reason why this business is not more generally attended to.

So much attention is now paid to the manufacture of indigo, in this state, that it bids fair to rival that of the French. It is to be regretted, that it is still the practice of the merchants concerned in the Carolina trade, to sell at foreign markets, the Carolina indigo of the first quality, as French. The society for the information and assistance of persons emigrating from other countries, in a printed paper, which bears their signature, say, that "A monied capital may be profitably employed, 1. In erecting mills, for making paper, for sawing lumber, and especially for manufacturing wheat flour. There are hundreds of valuable mill seats unimproved, and the woods abound with pine trees. A bushel of wheat may be purchased in South-Carolina for half a dollar, which will make as good flour as that which in the vicinity of proper mills sells for double that price. Such is the cheapness and fertility of the soil, that half a dollar a bushel for wheat would afford a great profit to the cultivators thereof. 2. In tanning and manufacturing leather—Cattle are raised with so much ease, in a country where the winters are both mild and short, that hides are remarkably cheap. The profits of tanners and shoe-makers must be considerable, when it is a well known fact, that the hides of full grown cattle, and a single pair of shoes sell for nearly the same price. 3. In making bricks—These now sell for nine dollars a thousand, and the call for them is so great, that the brick-layers are not fully supplied. 4. In making pot-ash—The ashes that might be collected in Charleston and from the woods burnt in clearing new lands in the country, would furnish the means of carrying on the manufacture of pot-ash to great advantage."

Constitution.] The legislative authority is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives. There are 124 representatives, and 35 senators, appointed among the several districts. The representatives are chosen for two years, must be free white men, 21 years old, and have been inhabitants of the state three years. If resident in the district, they must have a freehold of 500 acres of land, and ten negroes, or real estate worth 150l. sterling, clear of debt; if nonresident, must have a freehold in the district worth 500l. sterling, clear of debt. The senators are chosen for four years, and divided into two classes, one class being chosen every second year. They must be free white men, 30 years old, and have been inhabitants five years. If resident in the district, they must have a freehold worth 300l. sterling, clear of debt; if nonresident, a freehold worth 1000l. sterling, clear of debt. Every free white man, 21 years old, having been an inhabitant of the state two years, and been a freeholder of 50 acres of land, or a town lot, six months, or having been resident in the district six months, and paid a tax of 3s. sterling, has a right to vote for members of the legislature. The general assembly is chosen on the second Monday in October, and meets on the fourth Monday in

November, annually. Each house chooses its own officers, judges of the qualifications of its members, and has a negative on the other. A majority of each makes a quorum from day to day, and compels the attendance of members. They are protected, in their persons and estates, during the sessions, and ten days before and after; except in cases of treason, felony, and breach of the peace. They are paid out of the publick treasury, from which no money is drawn but by the legislative authority. Revenue bills originate in the lower house, but may be altered or rejected by the senate. Army and navy contractors, and all officers excepting officers in the militia, justices of the peace, and justices of the county courts which have no salaries, are excluded from the general assembly. The clergy are excluded from civil offices. The executive authority is vested in a governour, chosen for two years, by both houses of assembly jointly; but he cannot be re-elected till after four years. He must be thirty years old, have been an inhabitant of the state ten years, and have an estate in it worth 1,500l. sterling, clear of debt. He can hold no other office except in the militia. A lieutenant-governour is chosen in the same manner, for the same time, and possessing the same qualifications; and holds the office of governour in case of vacancy. The governour is commander in chief of the military force; has power to remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachments; to require information of executive officers; to convene the general assembly on extraordinary occasions, and to adjourn them to any time not beyond the fourth Monday in November next ensuing, in case they cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform the general assembly of the condition of the state; reccommend such measures as he shall judge expedient; and take care that the laws are faithfully executed in mercy. The legislature has power to vest the judicial authority in such courts as it shall think proper. The judges hold their commissions during good behaviour. Those of the superior courts are elected by the joint ballot of both houses of assembly; have a stated salary, and can hold no other office. All officers take an oath of fidelity to their duty, and to the constitution of this state, and of the United States; and, for malconduct, may be impeached by the house of representatives, and tried by the senate. This constitution asserts the supreme power of the people; liberty of conscience; trial by jury; and subordination of the military to the civil power. It excludes *ex post facto* laws; bills of attainder; excessive bail; and titles of nobility, and hereditary distinction.

The legislature has power, under certain regulations, to make amendments to the constitution. And a convention may be called by vote of two thirds of both branches of the whole representation.

This constitution was ratified June 3, 1790.

Laws.] The laws of this state have nothing in them of a particular nature, excepting what arises from the permission of slavery. The evidence of a slave cannot be taken against a white man; and the master who kills his slave is not punishable otherwise than by a pecuniary mulct, and 12 months' imprisonment.

A committee was appointed, at the session of the legislature in 1792, to put in train the business of revising and amending the negro act,

or the law for governing the slaves. The issue we hope will meliorate the condition of the slaves, and afford an evidence to the world of the enlightened policy, and increasing humanity of the citizens of this state We anticipate an issue of this nature the rather, because a disposition to soften the rigours of slavery has of late been manifested, by allowing them fish, tobacco and summer clothing, which formerly was not customary.

A law, altering the mode of the descent of intestate estates, which formerly descended according to the laws of England, was passed in 1792. According to the present law, a more equal partition takes place, and more conformable to a republican government, and to the dictates of natural affection.

By a late regulation, the judges of the court, who before had a salary of 500l. each, and fees, have now 600l. and no fees. The chief justice has 800l.

State of Literature.] Gentlemen of fortune, before the late war, sent their sons to Europe for education. During the war and since, they have generally sent them to the middle and northern states. Those who have been at this expense in educating their sons, have been but comparatively few in number, so that the literature of the state is at a low ebb. Since the peace, however, it has begun to flourish. There are several respectable academies in Charleston—one at Beaufort, on Port Royal island—and several others in different parts of the state. Three colleges have lately been incorporated by law—one at Charleston, one at Winnsborough, in the district of Camden, the other at Cambridge, in the district of Ninety-Six. The publick and private donations for the support of these three colleges, were originally intended to have been appropriated jointly, for the erecting and supporting of one respectable college. The division of these donations has frustrated this design. Part of the old barracks in Charleston has been handsomely fitted up, and converted into a college, and there are a number of students; but it does not yet merit a more dignified name than that of a respectable academy. The Mount Sion college, at Winnsborough, is supported by a respectable society of gentlemen, who have long been incorporated. This institution flourishes, and bids fair for usefulness. The college at Cambridge is no more than a grammar school. That the literature of this state might be put upon a respectable footing, nothing is wanting but a spirit of enterprize among its wealthy inhabitants. The legislature, in their session in January, 1795, appointed a committee to inquire into the practicability of, and to report a plan for, the establishment of schools in the different parts of the state.

Charitable and other Societies.] These are the South-Corolina, Mount Sion, Library and St. Cecilia Societies—a society for the relief of the widows and orphans of clergymen, a Medical society lately instituted in Charleston, a Musical society, and a society for the information and assistance of persons emigrating from foreign countries, instituted in 1794, or 1795, and the South-Carolina Agricultural Society. At Beaufort and on St. Helena are several charitable societies, incorporated with funds to a considerable amount, designed principally for the education of poor children, and which promise at a future day, to

be of great publick utility. What are called Jockey-Clubs, have increased within a few years.

Indians.] The Catawbas are the only nation of Indians in this state. They have but one town, called Catawba, situated on Catawba river, in latitude 34° 49′ on the boundary line between North and South-Carolinas, and contained, in 1787, about 450 inhabitants, of which about 150 were fighting men.

It is worthy of remark, that this nation was long at war with the Six Nations, into whose country they often penetrated, which it is said no other Indian nation from the south or west ever did. The Six Nations always considered them as the bravest of their enemies, till they were surrounded by the settlements of white people, whose neighbourhood, with other concurrent causes, have rendered them corrupt and nerveless.

Religion.] Since the revolution, by which all denominations were put on an equal footing, there have been no disputes between different religious sects. They all agree to differ.

The upper parts of this state are settled chiefly by Presbyterians, Baptists and Methodists. From the most probable calculations, it is supposed that the religious denominations of this state, as to numbers, may be ranked as follows: Presbyterians, including the Congregational and Independent churches—Episcopalians, Baptists, Methodists, &c.

Character.] There is no peculiarity in the manners of the inhabitants of this state, except what arises from the mischievous influence of slavery; and in this, indeed, they do not differ from the inhabitants of the other southern states. Slavery, by exempting great numbers from the necessities of labour, leads to luxury, dissipation and extravagance. The absolute authority, which is exercised over their slaves, too much favours a haughty supercilious behaviour. A disposition to obey the christian precept, "Do to others as you would that others should do unto you," is not cherished by a daily exhibition of many made for one. The Carolinians sooner arrive at maturity, both in their bodies and minds, than the natives of colder climates. They possess a natural quickness and vivacity of genius, superior to the inhabitants of the north; but too generally want that enterprize and perseverance, which are necessary for the highest attainments in the arts and sciences. They have, indeed, few motives to enterprize. Inhabiting a fertile country, which by the labour of the slaves produces plentifully, and creates affluence—in a climate which favours indulgence, ease, and a disposition for convivial pleasures, they too generally rest contented with barely knowledge enough to transact the common affairs of life. There are not a few instances, however, in this state, in which genius has been united with application, and the effects of their union have been happily experienced, not only by this state, but by the United States.

The wealth produced by the labour of the slaves furnishes their proprietors with the means of hospitality; and no people in the world use these means with more liberality. Many of the inhabitants spare no pains nor expense in giving the higest polish of education to their children, by enabling them to travel, and by other means unattainable by those who have but moderate fortunes.

The Carolinians are generally affable and easy in their manners, and polite and attentive to strangers. The ladies want the bloom of the north, but have an engaging softness and delicacy in their appearance and manners, and many of them possess the polite and elegant accomplishments.

Hunting is the most fashionable amusement in this state. At this, the country gentlemen are extremly expert, and with surprising dexterity pursue their game through the woods. Gaming of all kinds is more discountenanced among fashionable people in this, than in any of the southern states. Twice a year, statedly, a class of sportive gentlemen, in this and the neighbouring states, have their horse races. Bets of ten or fifteen hundred guineas have been sometimes laid on these occasions.

There is no instance, perhaps, in which the richer class of people trespass more on the rules of propriety, than in the mode of conducting their funerals. That a decent respect be paid to the dead, is the natural dictate of refined humanity; but this is not done by sumptuous and expensive entertainments, splendid decorations, and pompous ceremonies, which a misguided fashion has here introduced and rendered necessary. In Charleston and other parts of the state, no persons attend a funeral any more than a wedding, unless particularly invited. Wine, punch and all kinds of liquors, tea, coffee, cake, &c. in profusion, are handed round on these solemn occasions. In short, one would suppose that the religous proverb of the wise man, "It is better to go the house of mourning than to the house of feasting," would be unintelligible and wholly inapplicable here, as it would be difficult to distinguish the house of mourning from the house of feasting.

Military Strength.] The militia of this state, in 1791, amounted to 24,135, of which number 750 were of the city of Charleston. A number of men are kept to guard Fort Johnson, on James' island, at the entrance of Charleston harbour, by which no vessel can pass, unless the master or mate make oath that there is no malignant distemper on board. The militia laws, enacting that every freeman between 16 and 50 years of age shall be prepared for war, have been but indifferently obeyed since 1783. An unusual degree of military spirit, however, seems lately to have arisen among the citizens of Charleston. No less than eight volunteer uniform companies, a few years since, were formed in this city, besides a troop of horse, and the ancient battalion of artillery.

Mode of levying Taxes.] The great bulk of the revenue of the state is raised by a tax on lands and negroes. The lands, for the purpose of being taxed according to their value, are divided into three grand divisions; the first reaches from the sea-coast to the extent of the flowing of the tides; the second, from these points to the falls of the rivers; and thence to the utmost verge of the western settlement makes the third. These grand divisions, for the sake of more exactly ascertaining the value of the lands, are subdivided into 21 different species. The most valuable of which is estimated at six pounds, and the least valuable at one shilling per acre. Half per cent. on the value thus estimated, is levied from all granted lands in the state. The collection of taxes is not annexed to the office of sheriff, but is com-

mitted to particular gentlemen appointed for that purpose, who are allowed two and a half per cent. in Charleston, and five per cent. in the other parts of the state, on all they collect. The amount of taxes actually collected in specie, which alone is receivable, varies, according to the exigencies of the state, from 35,000 to £46,000 currency —dollars at 4/8. For two years past, absentees from the state, holding property within it, are double taxed. A clause in the law exempts those who reside in any of the United States, young men abroad for education, till they arrive at the age of 23, and allows two years to others who go for the purpose of travelling.

Banks.] There are three banks in this state, all at Charleston, viz. the Branch Bank of the United States; the South-Carolina Bank, established in 1792, and the Union Bank, established in 1796, with a capital of 600,000 dollars, divided into 1200 shares of 500 dollars each, under the management of 13 directors.

Damage by the late War.] The damages which this state sustained in the late war are thus estimated—The three entire crops of 1779, 1780 and 1781, all of which were used by the British—the crop of 1782, taken by the Americans—about 25,000 negroes—many thousands of pounds worth of plate, and household furniture in abundance —the villages of Georgetown and Camden burnt—The loss to the citizens directly by the plunderings and devastations of the British army; and indirectly by American impressments, and by the depreciation of the paper currency, together with the heavy debt of 1,200,000l. sterling, incurred for the support of the war, in one aggregate view, make the price of independence to South-Carolina, exclusive of the blood of its citizens, upwards of 3,000,000l. sterling.

Commerce.] The little attention that has been paid to manufactures, occasions a vast consumption of foreign imported articles; but the quantities and value of their exports generally leave a balance in favour of the state, except when there have been large importations of negroes.

The amount of exports from the port of Charleston, in the year ending, Nov. 1787, was then estimated, from authentick documents, at £505,279: 19: 5 sterling money. The number of vessels cleared from the custom-house the same year, was 947, measuring 62,118 tons; 735 of these, measuring 41,531 tons, were American; the others belonged to Great-Britain, Spain, France, the United Netherlands, and Ireland.

The principal articles exported from this state, are rice, indigo, tobacco, skins of various kinds, beef, pork, cotton, pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, myrtle-wax, lumber, naval stores, cork, leather, pink-root, snake-root, ginseng, &c. In the most successful seasons, there have been as many as 140,000 barrels of rice, and 1,300,000 pounds of indigo, exported in a year. From the 15th of December, 1791, to September, 1792, 108,567 tierces of rice, averaging 550lb. net weight each, were exported from Charleston. In the year ending September 30th, 1791, the amount of exports from this state was 2,693,267 dollars 97 cents; 1795, 5,998,492 dollars 49 cents; 1801, 14,304,045 dollars, and 1804, to 7,451,616 dollars. Charleston is by far the most considerable city on the sea-coast, for an ex-

tent of six hundred miles. From it are annually exported about the value of two millions and a half of dollars, in native commodities; and it supplies, with imported goods, a great part of the inhabitants of North-Carolina and Georgia, as well as those of South-Carolina. The harbour is open all the winter, and its contiguity to the West-India islands gives the merchants superior advantages for carrying on a peculiarly lucrative commerce. A waggon road of fifteen miles only is all that is wanted to open a communication with the inhabitants of the south-western territory of the United States. Knoxville, the capital of that territory, is one hundred miles nearer to Charleston than to any other considerable sea port town on the Atlantick ocean.

Practice of Law, Courts, &c.] From the first settlement of this country in 1669, to the year 1769, a single court, called the *Court of Common Pleas*, was thought sufficient to transact the judicial business of the state. This court was invariably held at Charleston, where all the records were kept, and all civil business transacted. As the province increased, inconveniences arose, and created uneasiness among the people.

To remedy these inconveniences, an act was passed in 1769, by which the province was divided into seven districts, since which two have been added. The court of common pleas (invested with the powers of the same court in England) sat four times a year in Charleston. By the above mentioned act, the judges of the court of common pleas were empowered to sit as judges of the court of sessions, invested with the powers of the court of King's bench, in England, in the criminal jurisdiction. The act likewise directed the judges of the courts of common pleas and sessions, in Charleston district, to divide, and two of the judges to proceed on what is called the northern circuit, and the other two on the southern circuit, distributing justice in their progress. This was to be done twice in the year. This mode of administering justice continued till 1785, when, by the unanimous exertions of the two upper districts, an act was passed, establishing county courts in all the counties of the four districts of Camden, Ninety-six, Cheraw and Orangeburg. The county courts are empowered to sit four times in a year. Before the establishment of county courts, the lawyers all resided at Charleston, under the immediate eye of government; and the Carolina bar was as pure and genteel as any in the United States. Since this establishment, lawyers have flocked in from all quarters, and settled in different parts of the country, and law-suits have been multiplied beyond all former knowledge.

History.] The reformation in France occasioned a civil war between the Protestant and Catholick parties in that kingdom. During these domestick troubles, Jasper de Coligni, a principal commander of the Protestant army, fitted out two ships, and sent them with a colony to America, under the command of Jean Ribaud, for the purpose of securing a retreat from persecution. Ribaud landed at the mouth of what is now called Albemarle river, in North-Carolina. This colony, after enduring incredible hardships, were extirpated by the Spaniards. No further attempts were made to plant a colony in

this quarter, till the reign of Charles II. of England. Mention is, however, made of Sir Robert Heath's having obtained a grant of Carolina, from Charles I. in 1630, but no settlements were made in consequence of this grant.

In 1662, after the restoration of Charles II. Edward earl of Clarendon, and seven others, obtained a grant of all lands lying between the 31st and 36th degrees of north latitude.

A second charter, given two years after, enlarged their boundaries, and comprehended all that province, territory, &c. extending eastward as far as the north end of Currituck inlet, upon a straight line westerly to Wyonoke creek, which lies within or about latitude 36° 30′; and so west, in a direct line as far as the South Sea; and south and westward as far as 29° north latitude, inclusive, and so west in direct lines to the South Sea.* Of this large territory, the king constituted these eight persons absolute lords proprietors—investing them with all necessary powers to settle and govern the same.

Nothing was successfully done towards the settlement of this country till 1669. At this time, the proprietors, in virtue of their powers, engaged the famous Mr. Locke to frame for them a constitution and body of laws. This constitution, consisting of 120 articles, was aristocratical, and though ingenious in theory, could never be successfully reduced to practice.

Three classes of nobility were to be established, (viz.) barons, cassiques and landgraves. The first to possess twelve—the second twenty-four—the third forty-eight thousand acres of land, which was to be unalienable.

* Various causes have rendered it expedient to divide this extensive territory. In 1728, North-Carolina was erected into a separate province. In 1732, George II. granted to certain trustees therein mentioned, and to their successors, a charter of all that part of Carolina lying between the most northern stream of Savannah river, along the sea-coast, to the most southern stream of Alatamaha river; westward, from the heads of these rivers, respectively in direct lines to the South Sea, inclusively, with all islands within 20 leagues of the same.

In 1762, the governour of South-Carolina conceiving that the lands lying south of Alatamaha river belonged to South-Corolina, granted several tracts of said land. Upon complaint being made by the government of Georgia, of this supposed encroachment on their territory, his majesty issued a proclamation in 1763, annexing to Georgia all the lands lying between the rivers Alatamaha and St. Mary's, but did not by this annul the Carolina grants. The boundary line, dividing the two provinces (now states) of South-Carolina and Georgia, had long been the subject of controversy; the former claiming the lands lying between the North-Carolina line and a line to run due west from the mouth of Tugulo and Keowee rivers; consequently that that spot was the head of Savannah river; the latter contended, that the source of Keowee river was to be considered as the head of Savannah river.

For the purpose of settling this controversy, commissioners were appointed in April, 1787, by the contending states, vested with full powers to determine the controverted boundary, which they fixed as follows:

"The most northern branch or stream of the river Savannah, from the sea or mouth of such stream, to the fork or confluence of the rivers now called Tugulo and Keowee, and from thence the most northern branch or stream of the said river Tugulo, till it intersects the northern boundary line of South-Carolina, if the said branch of Tugulo extends so far north, reserving all the islands in the said rivers Savannah and Tugulo to Georgia—but if the said branch or stream of Tugulo does not extend to the north boundary line of South-Carolina, then a west

In 1669, William Sayle, being appointed first governour of this country, embarked with a colony, and settled on the neck of land where Charleston now stands.

During the continuance of the proprietary government, a period of 50 years (reckoning from 1669 to 1719) the colony was involved in perpetual quarrels. Often times they were harassed by the Indians, sometimes infested with pirates, frequently invaded by the French and Spanish fleets—constantly uneasy under their injudicious government—and quarrelling with their governours. But their most bitter dissensions were respecting religion. The Episcopalians, being more numerous than the dissenters, attempted to exclude the latter from a seat in the legislature. These attempts so far succeeded, as that the church of England, by a majority of votes, were established by law. This illiberal act threw the colony into the utmost confusion, and was followed by a train of evil consequences, which proved to be the principal cause of the revolution which soon followed. Notwithstanding the act establishing the church of England was repealed, tranquillity was not restored to the colony. A change of government was generally desired by the colonists. They found that they were not sufficiently protected by their proprietary constitution, and effected a revolution about the year 1719, and the government became regal.

In 1728, the proprietors accepted 22,500l. sterling from the crown, for their property and jurisdiction, except Lord Granville, who reserved his eighth of the property, which has never yet been formally given up. At this time the constitution was new modelled, and the territory, limited by the original charter, was divided into North and South Carolinas.

From this period, the colony began to flourish. It was protected by a government formed on the plan of the English constitution. Under the fostering care of the mother country, its growth was astonishingly rapid. Between the years 1763 and 1775, the number of

line to the Missisippi to be drawn from the head spring or source of the said branch of Tugulo river, which extends to the highest northern latitude, shall for ever hereafter form the separating limit and boundary between the states of South-Carolina and Georgia.'

It is supposed, in the map of this state, that the most northern branch of the Tugulo river intersects the northern boundary of South-Carolina, which if it be fact, brings the state to a point in latitude 35°, and about 8° 35' west longitude from Philadelphia; but it is not yet ascertained whether this will be the case. If it shall be found that the most northern source of the Tugulo does not extend to latitude 35°, then South-Carolina, or the United States by her assignment, will claim a strip of country extending from the meridian west to the Missisippi, in breadth from the most northern source of the Tugulo to latitue 35°, unless the treaties subsisting between the United States and the Creek Indians shall interfere and bound them, as they do Georgia.

It ought to be here noted, that South-Carolina, in the forementioned treaty with Georgia, gave up a claim which it had till then retained, to the lands south of the Alatamaha, as a return to Georgia for agreeing that the boundary between the two states should be the most northern branch of the Tugulo, instead of the Keowee, as had been originally insisted on by the state of Georgia. This confirms to the state of South-Carolina, a very rich tract of country, which had been reserved by that state for the officers and soldiers of the late army.

inhabitants was more than doubled. No one indulged a wish for a change in their political constitution, till the memorable stamp act, passed in 1765.

During the vigorous contest for independence, this state was a great sufferer. For three years it was the seat of war. It feels and laments the loss of many respectable citizens. Since the peace, it has emerged from that melancholy confusion and poverty, in which it was generally involved by the devastations of a relentless enemy. The inhabitants are fast multiplying by immigrations from the other states. The agricultural interests of the state are reviving—commerce is flourishing—economy is becoming more fashionable—and science begins to spread her salutary influences among the citizens. And, under the operation of the present government, this state, from her natural, commercial and agricultural advantages, and the abilities of her leading characters, ranks among the richest and most respectable in the Union.

See Ramsay's Revolution in South-Carolina, and History of Carolina and Georgia, anonymous, supposed to be by Hewett.

GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 260, Breadth 250 } between { 5° and 10° 40′ west longitude. 31° and 35° north latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED east by the Atlantick ocean; south by East-Florida; west by the Missisippi territory; north-east and north by South-Carolina.

Civil Divisions.] That part of the state which has been laid out in counties, is divided into three districts, Eastern, Middle and Western, which are subdivided into 24 counties, as follows:

EASTERN DISTRICT.

Counties.	No. Inhab.	No. Slaves.	Chief Towns.
Glynn	1,874	1,092	Brunswick
Camden	1,681	735	St. Patrick's
Macintosh	2,660	1,819	
Liberty	5,313	3,940	Sunbury
Bryan	2,836	2,306	
Chatham	12,946	9,049	SAVANNAH
Effingham	2,072	762	Ebenezer
Bullock	1,913	269	

MIDDLE DISTRICT.

Counties.	No. Inhab.	No. Slaves.	Chief Towns.
Burke	9,506	2,967	Waynesboro'
Scriven	3,019	766	
Montgomery	3,180	435	
Washington	10,300	2,668	Golphinton
Jefferson	5,684	1,642	Louisville
Warren	8,329	2,058	
Richmond	5,473	2,691	Augusta
Columbia	8,345	3,008	

WESTERN DISTRICT.

Hancock	14,456	4,835	
Greene	10,761	3,657	Greensburg
Oglethorpe	9,780	3,089	
Jackson	7,736	1,400	
Franklin	6,859	959	
Elbert	10,094	2,816	
Wilkes	13,103	5,008	Washington
Lincoln	4,766	1,433	
Total 24	162,686	59,699	
Total in 1790,	82,548	29,264	
Increase in 10 years	80,138	30,435	

To each of these districts there is allowed one judge of the superior courts, who hold two courts every year, who pass in rotation from one district to another, so that one judge shall not serve in the same district for two succeeding terms. Besides, each county has five inferior judges, or justices of the inferior court, whose duty it is to hold two courts in every year for the purpose of transacting the county business in common law. Every captain's district is also allowed two justices of the peace, who are allowed a jury of seven men, and hold courts once a month, who have jurisdiction in all actions where the amount does not exceed 30 dollars. [*Walker's MSS. Let.*]

Before the revolution, Georgia, like all the southern states, was divided into parishes; but this mode of division is now abolished, and that of counties has succeeded in its room.

Face of the Country.] The eastern part of the state, between the mountains and ocean, and the rivers Savannah and St. Mary's, a tract of country more than 120 miles from north to south, and 40 or 50 from east to west, is entirely level, without a hill or stone. At the distance of about 40 or 50 miles from the sea board, or salt marsh, the lands begin to be more or less uneven. The ridges gradually rise one above another into hills, and the hills successively increase in height, till they finally terminate in mountains. That vast chain of mountains, which commences with the Katts Kill, near Hudson's river, in the state of New-York, known by the names of the Allegany

and Apalachian Mountains, terminate in this state, about 60 miles south of its northern boundary. From the foot of this mountain, spreads a wide extended plain, of the richest soil, and in a latitude and climate well adapted to the cultivation of most of the productions of the south of Europe and the East-Indies.

Climate, Diseases, &c.] In some parts of this state, at particular seasons of the year, the climate cannot be esteemed salubrious. In the low country, near the rice swamps, bilious complaints and fevers of various kinds are pretty universal during the months of July, August and September, which, for this reason, are called the sickly months.

The disorders peculiar to this climate originate partly from the badness of the water, which, in the low country, except in and about Savannah and some other places, where good springs are found, is generally brackish; and partly from the noxious putrid vapours which are exhaled from the stagnant waters, and putrid matter in the rice swamps. Besides, the long continuance of warm weather produces a general relaxation of the nervous system; and as a great proportion of the inhabitants have no necessary labour to call them to exercise, indolence is the natural consequence; and indolence, especially amongst a luxurious people, is ever the parent of disease. The immense quantities of spirituous liquors, which are used to correct the brackishness of the water, form a species of intemperance which too often proves ruinous to the constitution. Parents of infirm, sickly habits, often, in more senses than one, have children of their own likness. A considerable part of the diseases of the present inhabitants may therefore be considered as hereditary.

Before the sickly season commences, many of the rich planters of this state remove with their families to the sea islands, or some elevated healthy situation, where they reside three or four months, for the benefit of the fresh air. In the winter and spring, pleurisies, peripneumonies, and other inflammatory disorders, occasioned by sudden and violent colds, are considerably common, and frequently fatal. Consumptions, epilepsies, cancers, palsies and apoplexies, are not so common among the inhabitants of the southern as northern climates.

The winters in Georgia are very mild and pleasant. Snow is seldom or never seen. Vegetation is not frequently prevented by severe frosts. Cattle subsist tolerably well through the winter, without any other food than what they obtain in the woods and savannas, and are fatter in that season than in any other. In the hilly country, which begins about 50 and in some places 100 miles from the sea, the air is pure and salubrious, and the water plenty and good. From June to September, the mercury in Farenheit's thermometer commonly fluctuates from 76° to 90°. In winter, from 40 to 60°. The most prevailing winds are south-west and east—in winter north-west. The east wind is warmest in winter and coolest in summer. The south wind, in summer and fall particularly, is damp, sultry, unelastick, and of course unhealthy.

In the south-east parts of this state, which lie within a few degrees of the torrid zone, the atmosphere is kept in motion by impressions from the trade winds. This serves to purify the air, and render it

fit for respiration; so that it is found to have a very advantageous effect on persons of consumptive habits.

Rivers.] Savannah river divides this state from South-Carolina. Its course is nearly from north-west to south-east. It is formed principally of two branches, the Tugulo and Keowee, which spring from the mountains, and unite, under the name of Savannah, 15 miles north-west of the northern boundary of Wilkes county. It is navigable for large vessels 17 miles up to Savannah, and for boats of 100 feet keel as far as Augusta. After rising a fall just above this place, it is passable for boats to the mouth of Tugulo river. After it takes the name Savannah, at the confluence of the Tugulo and Keowee, it receives a number of tributary streams, from the Georgia side, the principal of which is Broad river, which rises in the county of Franklin, and runs south-east through part of Wilkes county, and mingles with Savannah at the town of Petersburg, and might, with a trifling expense, be made boatable 25 or 30 miles through the best settlements in Wilkes county. Tybee bar, at the entrance of Savannah river, in lat. 31° 57′, has 16 feet water at half tide.

Ogeechee river, about 18 miles south of the Savannah, is a smaller river and nearly parallel with it in its course.

Alatamaha,* about 60 miles south of Savannah river, has its source in the Cherokee mountains, near the head of Tugulo, the great west branch of Savannah, and, before it leaves the mountains, is joined and augmented by innumerable rivulets: thence it descends through the hilly country, with all its collateral branches, and winds rapidly amongst the hills 250 miles, and then enters the flat, plain country, by the name of the Oakmulge; thence meandering 150 miles, it is joined on the east side by the Ocone, which likewise heads in the lower ridges of the mountains. After this confluence, having now gained a vast acquisition of waters, it assumes the name of Alatamaha, when it becomes a large majestick river, flowing with gentle windings through a vast plain forest, near 100 miles, and enters the Atlantick by several mouths. The north channel, or entrance, glides by the heights of Darien, on the east bank, about ten miles above the bar; and running from thence with several turnings, enters the ocean between Sapello and Wolf islands. The south channel which is esteemed the largest and deepest, after its separation from the north, descends gently, winding by M'Intosh's and Broughton islands; and lastly, by the west coast of St. Simon's island, enters the ocean, through St. Simon's Sound, between the south end of the island of that name and the north end of Jekyl island. On the west banks of the south channel, ten or twelve miles above its mouth, and nearly opposite Darien, are to be seen the remains of an ancient fort, or fortification; it is now a regular tetragon terrace, about four feet high, with bastions at each angle; the area may contain about an acre of ground, but the fosse which surrounded it is nearly filled up. There are large live oaks, pines, and other trees, growing upon it, and in the old fields adjoining. It is supposed to have been the work of the French or Spaniards. A large swamp lies betwixt it and the river, and a considerable creek runs close by the works, and enters

* Pronounced Oltamawhaw.

the river through the swamps, a small distance above Broughton island. About 70 or 80 miles above the confluence of the Oakmulge and Ocone, the trading path from Augusta to the Creek nation crosses these fine rivers, which are there forty miles apart. On the east banks of the Oakmulge, this trading road runs nearly two miles through ancient Indian fields, which are called the Oakmulge fields; they are the rich low lands of the river. On the heights of these low grounds are yet visible monuments or traces of an ancient town, such as artificial mounds or terraces, squares and banks encircling considerable areas. Their old fields and planting land extend up and down the river, fifteen or twenty miles from this site. And, if we are to give credit to the account the Creeks give of themselves, this place is remarkable for being the first town or settlement, in which they sat down, (as they term it) or established themselves, after their emigration from the west, beyond the Missisippi, their original native country.

Besides these, there is Turtle river, Little Sitilla or St. Ille, Great Sitilla, Crooked river, and St. Mary's. The latter forms a part of the southern boundary of the United States, and has its source from a vast lake, or rather marsh, called Okefonoke, hereafter described, and flows through a vast plain or pine forest, about 150 miles to the ocean, with which it communicates between the points of Amelia and Talbert's islands, latitude 30° 44', and is navigable for vessels of considerable burthen for 90 miles, or as high as Trader's Hill. It is very crooked, and its banks, which afford immense quantities of fine timber, suited to the West-India market are annually inundated. Along this river, every four or five miles, are bluffs, convenient for vessels to haul to and load.

The bays and lagoons in this state are stored with oysters, and other shell-fish, crabs, shrimps, &c. The clams, in particular, are large, their meat white, tender, and delicate. The shark and great black sting-ray, are insatiable cannibals, and very troubelesome to the fishermen.

Lakes and Swamps.] The lake, or rather marsh, called Okefonoke, lies between Flint and Oakmulge rivers, and is said to be nearly three hundred miles in circumference, though Mr. Ellicot says it is much less than has generally been supposed. In wet seasons it appears like an inland sea, and has several large islands of rich land; one of which the present generation of Creek Indians fabulously represent as the most blissful spot on earth. They say it is inhabited by a peculiar race of Indians, whose women are incomparably beautiful. They tell you also that this terrestrial paradise has been seen by some enterprizing hunters, when in pursuit of their game, who being lost in inextricable swamps and bogs, and on the point of perishing, were unexpectedly relieved by a company of beautiful women, whom they call daughters of the Sun, who kindly gave them such provisions as they had with them, consisting of fruit and corn cakes, and then enjoined them to fly for safety to their own country, because their husbands were fierce men and cruel to strangers. They further say that these hunters had a view of their settlements, situated on the elevated banks of an island, in a beautiful lake; but that in their endeavours to approach it they were involved

in perpetual labyrinths, and, like enchanted land, still as they imagined they had just gained it, it seemed to fly before them. They determined at length to quit the delusive pursuit, and with much difficulty effected a retreat. When they reported their adventures to their countrymen, the young warriors were inflamed with an irresistible desire to invade and conquer so charming a country, but all their attempts had hitherto proved fruitless, they never being able again to find the spot.* They tell another story concerning this sequestered country, which seems not improbable, which is, that the inhabitants are the posterity of a fugitive remnant of the ancient Yamases, who escaped massacre after a bloody and decisive battle between them and the Creeks, (who, it is certain, conquered and nearly exterminated that once powerful people) and here found an asylum, remote and secure from their proud conquerors.

The rivers St. Mary, Sitilla or St. Ille, and the beautiful Little St. Juan, which empties into the Bay of Appalachi at St. Mark's, are said to flow from this lake.†

About 16 miles from the mouth of Broad river, on its south side, is what is called the Goose pond, a tract of about 180 acres, covered with living water about two feet deep. It discharges into the river, and is fed by two springs.

Chief Towns.] Augusta was the seat of government in this state, till the year 1790; it is situated on a fine plain on the south-west side of Savannah river, where it is near five hundred yards broad, at the bend of the river, 127 miles north-west from Savannah by land, 340 by water. It contains 1198 white people, and 1017 slaves. It is 596 miles from Washington. At the first settlement of the colony, Gen. Oglethorpe erected a fort here, for protecting the Indian trade, and holding treaties with the natives. In 1739 about 600 people separated themselves from the maritime settlements, and removed to its neighbourhood to carry on a peltry trade with the Indians. The country round it has an excellent soil, which, with its central situation, between the upper and lower countries, will bring it fast into importance. It contains about 250 dwellings. The publick buildings are a church, an academy and government house, a market house, gaol and court house. The streets cross each other at right angles. In the academy are generally 80 or 90 students; the funds amount to several thousand dollars. A bridge across the Savannah here is 19 feet wide, 7 or 800 feet long. It is a place of considerable trade. N. lat. 33° 19', W. lon. 80° 46'.

Savannah, the former capital of Georgia, stands on a high sandy bluff, on the south side of the river of the same name, and 17 miles from its mouth. The town is regularly built in the form of a parallelogram, and, including its surburbs, contained, in 1787, 227 dwelling-houses, one Episcopal church, a Presbyterian church, a synagogue and court-house. The number of its inhabitants, exclusive of the blacks, amounted, at that time, to about 830, 70 of whom were Jews. In Savannah, and within a circumference of about 10 miles from it

* This "ridiculous and fabulous story," as Mr. Ellicott calls it, is taken from Mr. Bartram's Travels, and is preserved as a curious Indian fable.

† Bartram's Travels.

there were, in the summer of 1787, about 2,300 inhabitants. Of these, 192 were above 50 years of age, and all in good health. The ages of a lady and her 6 children, then living in the town, amounted to 385 years. This computation, which was actually made, serves to shew that Savannah is not really so unhealthy as has been commonly represented. From a bill of mortality for 1794 it appears, that of 2,500 inhabitants (the whole number in the town of Savannah) 78 died in the course of the year, which is one to 32 of the whole number. About 300 houses were consumed by fire in the fall of 1796. The exports for one year, ending the 30th September, 1794, amounted to the value of 253,830 dollars. This city was bravely defended by the British general Prevost, against a superior force, headed by Count d'Estaing and Gen. Lincoln. The allies made a fatal and unsuccessful attack on the 18th of October, 1779, when they were obliged to retreat, after having from 1000 to 1200 men killed and wounded. It is 129 miles N. by E. of St. Mary's, 132 S. W. by S. from Augusta, 925 in a like direction from Philadelphia, and 653 from Washington. N. lat. 32° 3', W. lon. 81° 24'.

Sunbury is a seaport town, favoured with a safe and very convenient harbour. Several small islands intervene, and partly obstruct a direct view of the ocean; and, interlocking with each other, render the passage out to sea winding, but not difficult It is a very pleasant, healthy town, and is the resort of the planters from the adjacent places of Midway and Newport, during the sickly months. It was burnt by the British in the late war, but has since been rebuilt. An academy was established here in 1788, which, under an able instructor, has proved a very useful institution.

Brunswick, in Glynn county, latitude 31° 10', is situated at the mouth of Turtle river, at which place this river empties itself into St. Simon's sound. Brunswick has a safe and capacious harbour; and the bar, at the entrance into it, has water deep enough for the largest vessel that swims. The town is regularly laid out, but not yet built. From its advantageous situation, and from the fertility of the back country, it promises to be hereafter one of the first trading towns in Georgia.

Frederica, on the island of St. Simon, is nearly in latitude 31° 15'. It is one of the first towns built in Georgia, and was founded by Gen. Oglethorpe. The fortress was regular and beautiful, constructed chiefly with brick, and is now in ruins. The town contains but few houses, which stand on an eminence, if considered with regard to the marshes before it, upon a branch of Alatamaha river, which washes the west side of this agreeable island, and forms a bay before the town, affording a safe and secure harbour for vessels of the largest burthen, which may lie along the wharf.

Washington, the chief town in the county of Wilkes, is situated in latitude 33° 22', about 50 miles westward of Augusta, and 20 W. S. W. of Petersburg. It stands on a plain in the richest part of the state, has a court-house, a brick gaol, and about 50 dwelling-houses. Half a mile from the town is an elegant building, 40 by 60 feet, two stories high, erected for an academy. The funds are ample; the situation healthy.

The town of Louisville, the present seat of government, is situated on the bank of Ogeechee river, about 70 miles from its mouth. It contains a state-house, a tobacco ware-house, and upwards of forty dwelling-houses. Large quantities of tobacco are inspected here, and boated down to Savannah. The convention for the revisal of the constitution sat in this town in May, 1795, appointed the records to be removed, and the legislature to meet here in future. It is 52 miles S. E. of Augusta, and 100 N. W. of Savannah.

Athens is the seat of the university of Georgia, and capital of Clarke county, near Louisville.

Soil, Productions, &c.] The soil and its fertility are various, according to situation and different improvement. The islands on the sea board, in their natural state, are covered with a plentiful growth of pine, oak, hickory, live oak, (an uncommonly hard and very valuable wood) and some red cedar. The soil is a mixture of sand and black mould, making what is commonly called a grey soil. A considerable part of it, particularly that whereon grow the oak, hickory and live oak, is very rich, and yields, on cultivation, good crops of indigo, cotton, corn and potatoes. These islands are surrounded by navigable creeks, between which and the main land is a large extent of salt marsh, fronting the whole state, not less, on an average, than 4 or 5 miles in breadth, intersected with creeks in various directions, admitting through the whole an inland navigation, between the islands and main land, from the north-east to the south-east corners of the state. The east sides of these islands are, for the most part, clean, hard, sandy beaches, exposed to the wash of the ocean. Between these islands are the entrances of the rivers from the interior country, winding through the low salt marshes, and delivering their waters into the sounds, which form capacious harbours of from three to eight miles over, and which communicate with each other by parallel salt creeks. The principal islands are Skidaway, Wassaw, Ossabaw, St. Catharine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jedyl, Cumberland and Amelia.

The soil of the main land, adjoining the marshes and creeks, is nearly of the same quality with that of the island; except that which borders on those rivers and creeks which stretch far back into the country. On these, immediately after you leave the salts, begin the valuable rice swamps, which, on cultivation, afford the present principal staple of commerce. The most of the rice lands lie on rivers, which as far as the tide flows, are called tide lands; or on creeks and particular branches of water, flowing in some deeper or lower parts of the lands, which are called inland swamps, and extend back in the country from 15 to 25 miles, beyond which very little rice is planted, though it will grow exceedingly well, as experiment has proved, 120 miles back from the sea. The intermediate lands, between these creeks and rivers, are of an inferior quality, being of a grey soil, covered chiefly with pine, and a sort of wild grass and small reeds, which afford a large range of feeding ground for stock, both summer and winter. Here and there are interspersed oak and hickory ridges, which are of a better soil, and produce good crops of corn and indigo, but these are very little elevated above the circumjacent lands. The lands adjoining the rivers, and for a hundred miles in a direct line

from the sea, continue a breadth from 2 to 3 or 4 miles, and wherever, in that distance, you find a piece of high land that extends to the bank of the river on one side, you may expect to find the low or swamp ground proportionably wide on the opposite side of the river. This seems to be an invariable rule till you come to that part where the rivers cut the mountains.

The soil between the rivers, after you leave the sea board and the edge of the swamps, at the distance of 20 or 30 miles, changes from a grey to a red colour, on which grows plenty of oak and hickory, with a considerable intermixture of pine. In some places it is gravelly, but fertile, and so continues for a number of miles, gradually deepening the reddish colour of the earth, till it changes into what is called the Mulatto soil, consisting of a black mould and red earth. The composition is darker or lighter according as there is a larger or smaller portion of the black or red earth in it. The Mulatto lands are generally strong, and yield large crops of wheat, tobacco, corn, &c. To this kind of land succeeds by turns a soil nearly black and very rich, on which grow large quantities of black walnut, mulberry, &c. This succession of different soils continues uniform and regular, though there are some large veins of all the different soils intermixed; and what is more remarkable, this succession, in the order mentioned, stretches across this state nearly parallel with the sea-coast, and extends through the several states, nearly in the same direction, to the banks of Hudson river. In this state are produced, by culture, rice, indigo, cotton, of which, in 1796, 1,700,000lbs. were raised, silk, (though not in large quantities) Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, pomegranates, &c. Rice, at present, is the staple commodity; and as a small proportion only of the rice ground is under cultivation, the quantity raised in future must be much greater than at present. But the rapid increase of the inhabitants, chiefly by immigrations, whose attention is turned to the raising of tobacco, and the vast extent of land with a richness of soil suited to the culture of that plant, renders it probable that tobacco will shortly become the staple of this state. Cotton was formerly planted only by the poorer class of people, and that only for family use. They planted of two kinds, the annual and the West-Indian; the former is low, and planted every year. The balls of this are very large, and the phlox long, strong, and perfectly white. The latter is a tall perennial plant, the stalk somewhat shrubby, several of which rise up from the root for several years successively, the stems of the former year being killed by winter frosts. The balls of West-India cotton are not quite so large as the other, but the phlox or wool is long, extremely fine, silky and white. A plantation of this kind will last several years, with moderate labour and care. The culture of cotton is now much more attended to. Several indigo planters have converted their plantations into cotton fields. A new species of cotton is about to be introduced into this state, the seed of which was lately brought by Captain Josiah Roberts from the island of Waitahoo, one of the Marquesas in the South Pacifick Ocean, and sent to a gentleman in Georgia by a member of the Historical Society in Boston. This cotton is of a very fine texture, and grows on all the islands of that cluster called the Mar-

quesas. It is expected that it will prove a considerable acquisition to the southern states.

A Georgia correspondent with the Historical Society distinguishes the cotton now raised in Georgia into two kinds, the *green* and the *black seed*; the first is planted almost exclusively in the *Upper Country*; the other is planted on the sea islands, and lands of the same kind adjacent, and was brought, about the year 1788, from the Bahamas. "There is now a prospect," he observes, "that in a few years the states of South-Carolina and Georgia may be able to raise more than *ten millions* of pounds of cotton annually for exportation." The tobacco lands are equally well adapted to wheat, which may hereafter make an important article of commerce.

On the dry plains, grow large crops of sweet potatoes, which are found to afford a wholesome nourishment, and from which is made, by distillation, a kind of whisky, tolerably good, but inferior to that made of rye. It is by properly macerating and washing this root that a sediment or starch is made, which has obtained the name of sago, and answers all the purposes of the India sago.

Most of the tropical fruits would flourish in this state with proper attention. The rice plant has been transplanted; and also the tea plant, of which such immense quantities are consumed in the United States, was introduced into Georgia, by Mr. Samuel Bowen, about the year 1770, from India. The seed was disseminated, and the plant now grows, without cultivation, in most of the fenced lots in Savannah.

From many considerations we may perhaps venture to predict, that the south-western part of the state, and the parts of East and West Florida, which lie adjoining, will, in some future time, become the vineyard of America.

Remarkable Springs.] In the county of Wilkes, within a mile and a half of the town of Washington, is a medicinal spring, which rises from a hollow tree, four or five feet in length. The inside of the tree is covered with a coat of matter, an inch thick, and the leaves around the spring are incrusted with a substance as white as snow. It is said to be a sovereign remedy for the scurvy, scrofulous disorders, consumptions, gouts, and every other disease arising from humours in the blood.

Cobb's mineral springs are situated in the county of Jefferson, and are famed for their medicinal virtues. In the summer they are a place of resort; 30 or 40 houses, or cabins of logs, are built for the accommodation of visitants.

Curiosities.] One of the greatest curiosities in this state is the bank of oyster shells in the vicinity of Augusta, 90 miles from the sea, already described, page 192. On the banks of Little river, in the upper part of the state, are several curious and stupendous monuments of the power and industry of the ancient inhabitants of this country. Here are also traces of a large Indian town.

Commerce, Manufactures, and Agriculture.] The chief article of export are rice, cotton, tobacco, (of which the county of Wilkes only exported, in 1788, about 3,000 hogsheads) indigo, sago, lumber of various kinds, naval stores, leather, deer-skins, snake-root, myrtle and

bees-wax, corn, and live stock. The planters and farmers raise large stocks of cattle, from 1,000 to 1,500 head, and some more.

The value, in sterling money, of the exports of Georgia, in the year 1755, was £15,744—in 1772, £121,677, sterling money. In the year 1791, 491,250 dollars—in 1795, 695,985 dollars—in 1801, 1,755,939 dollars—in 1804, 2,077,572 dollars.

In 1755, 9 square-rigged vessels, and 43 sloops, together making 1,899 tons, cleared out of Georgia, and in 1772, 84 square-rigged vessels, and 133 sloops, whose tonnage was 11,246.

In return for the enumerated exports are imported West-India goods, teas, wines, various articles of clothing, and dry goods of all kinds. From the northern states, cheese, fish, potatoes, apples, cider and shoes. The imports and exports of this state are principally to and from Savannah, which has a fine harbour, and is a place where the principal commercial business of the state is transacted. The trade with the Indians in furs and skins was very considerable before the war, but has since been interrupted by the wars in which they have been involved. The manufactures of this state have hitherto been very inconsiderable, if we except indigo, silk and sago.

The manner in which the indigo is cultivated and manufactured is as follows: The ground, which must be a strong rich soil, is thrown into beds of 7 or 8 feet wide, after having been made very mellow, and is then raked till it is fully pulverized. The seed is then sown in April, in rows at such a distance as conveniently to admit of hoeing between them. In July the first crop is fit to cut, being commonly two and a half feet high. It is then thrown into vats, constructed for the purpose, and steeped about 30 hours; after which the liquor is drawn off into other vats, where it is *beat*, as they call it, by which means it is thrown into much such a state of agitation as cream is by churning. After this process, lime-water is put into the liquor, which causes the particles of indigo to settle at the bottom. The liquor is then drawn off, and the sediment, which is the indigo, is taken out and spread on cloths, and partly dried; it is then put into boxes and pressed, and while it is yet soft, cut into square pieces, which are thrown into the sun to dry, and then put up in casks for the market. They have commonly three cuttings a season. A middling crop for 30 acres, is 1,300 pounds.

The culture of silk and the manufacture of sago are at present but little attended to. The people in the lower part of this state manufacture none of their own clothing for themselves or their negroes. For almost every article of their wearing apparel, as well as for their husbandry tools, they depend on their merchants, who import them from Great-Britain and the northern states. In the upper parts of the country, however, the inhabitants manufacture the chief part of their clothing from cotton, hemp and flax.

Population, Character and Manners. For the population, See Table. No general character will apply to the inhabitants at large. Collected from different parts of the world, as interest, necessity or inclination led them, their character and manners must of course partake of all the varieties which distinguish the several states and kingdoms from whence they came. There is so little

uniformity, that it is difficult to trace any governing principles among them. An aversion to labour is too predominant, owing in part to the relaxing heat of the climate, and partly to the want of necessity to excite industry. An open and friendly hospitality, particularly to strangers, is an ornamental characteristick of a great part of this people. Their political character, as a state, has been tarnished and disgraced by the unprecedented proceedings of their legislature, relative to the sale of part of their Western Territory. The probability is, however, that these disgraceful proceedings are not approved of by the state in general.

Their diversions are various. With some, dancing is a favourite amusement. Others take a fancied pleasure at the gaming table; which, however, frequently terminates in the ruin of their happiness, fortunes and constitutions. In the upper counties, horse-racing and cock-fighting prevail, two cruel diversions, imported from Virginia and the Carolinas, from whence those who practise them principally migrated. But the most rational and universal amusement is hunting; and for this Georgia is particularly well calculated, as the woods abound with plenty of deer, racoons, rabits, wild turkies, and other game; at the same time, the woods are so thin and free from obstructions, that one may generally ride half speed in chase without danger. In this amusement, pleasure and profit are blended. The exercise, more than any other, contributes to health, fits for activity in business and expertness in war; the game also affords them a palatable food, and the skins a profitable article of commerce.

Religion.] The inhabitants of this state, who profess the Christian religion, are of the Presbyterian, Episcopalian, Baptist and Methodist denominations. The two latter are much the most numerous. They have but few regular ministers among them.

Constitution.] The present constitution of the state of Georgia was adopted and ratified by a convention of delegates from the people, on the 6th of May, 1789. It is formed upon a plan similar to the federal constitution of the United States. All legislative power is vested in two distinct branches, a senate and house of representatives, both chosen by the people at large, and styled the General Assembly. The members of the senate are chosen for the term of three years; the house of representatives are chosen annually.* The senate has the sole power of trying all impeachments, and the house of representatives of impeaching. No money is drawn out of the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law. No clergyman, of any denomination, is permitted to be chosen a member of the legislature. The executive power is vested in the hands of a governour, who holds his office during two years. He is chosen by the legislature, and must have been 12 years a citizen of the United States, and 6 years an inhabitant of Georgia. He must be 30 years of age, and possess 500 acres of land, or other property to the amount of 1,000l. sterling. He has a negative on all laws, unless they are afterwards

* By an amendment of the constitution, in May, 1795, the senators, as well as representatives, are chosen annually. The senate is composed of a member from each county, and the number of representatives varies according to population. A convention was to meet in May, 1798, for further revision of the constitution.

re-passed by two-thirds of each branch of the legislature. In case of disagreement between the senate and house of representatives, in respect to adjournment, the governour may adjourn them to such time as he thinks proper. He shall receive, at stated times, a compensation for his services, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he is elected; neither can he receive, during that period, any other emolument from the United States, or any of them, or from any foreign power. He is commander in chief in and over the state, and of the militia. The electors of the members of both branches of the legislature must be citizens of the state, 21 years of age, have paid taxes for the year preceding the election, and have resided six months within the county. All elections must be by ballot, and all appointments of state officers by the legislature; except militia officers, and secretaries of the governour, who are appointed by the governour alone. But the general assembly may vest the power of appointing inferior officers in the governour, or the courts of justice. Freedom of the press and trial by jury shall remain inviolate, and all persons shall be entitled to the writ of *habeas corpus*. All persons shall have the free exercise of religion, without being obliged to contribute to the support of any religious profession but their own. Estates shall not be entailed; and when a person dies intestate, leaving a wife and children, the wife shall have a child's share, or her dower, at her option; if there be no wife, the estate shall be equally divided among the children, and their legal representatives of the first degree.

A superior court is to be holden in each county, twice in every year, in which shall be tried all causes civil and criminal; except such as may be subject to the federal court, and such as may by law be referred to inferior jurisdictions. Courts-merchant shall be held, subject to legislative regulation; and all causes shall be tried in the county where the defendant resides; except in cases of real estate, which shall be tried in the county where such estate lies, and in criminal cases, which shall be tried in the county where the crime has been committed. The judges of the supreme court, and the attorney-general shall have a salary established by law; and hold their commissions for three years.

The senate consists of one member from each county, and the house of representatives of 34 members. A senator must have attained the age of 28, must have been nine years a citizen of the United States, and three years a citizen of Georgia. He must possess, in his own right, 250 acres of land, and property to the amount of 250l. A member of the house of representatives must be 21 years of age. He must have been seven years a citizen of the United States, and two years an inhabitant of Georgia. He must possess 200 acres of land, or other property to the amount of £150. One third of the members of each house may proceed to business. Elections are by ballot. See *Civil Divisions*.

The judges of the superior court are invested with limited chancery powers, and can hold courts of chancery, within such limitation, at any time when occasion requires. Besides the superior court there is an inferior court or court of common pleas, established in each coun-

ty, which sits twice in a year, with five judges appointed by the legislature. The mode of process is extremely simple, and unincumbered with the tedious complication and delay of English rules.

All actions in the county courts are commenced by a simple petition, addressed to the judges of the court, praying redress of grievances, and stating in a few words the nature and cause of the action. A writ issues from the clerk's office, which brings the defendant before the court, and, in due time, the merits of the case are investigated and determined by a jury. The county courts have no jurisdiction of criminal causes, which can be tried only in the superior court. Besides these, there is the sheriff's court, and courts held by the justices of the peace, in every part of the state.

State of Literature.] The literature of this state, which is yet in its infancy, is commencing on a plan which affords the most flattering prospects. It seems to have been the design of the legislature of this state, as far as possible, to unite their literary concerns, and provide for them in common, that the whole might feel the benefit, and no part be neglected or left a prey to party rage, private prejudices and contentions, and consequently ignorance, their inseparable attendant. For this purpose, the literature of this state, like its policy, appears to be considered as one object, and in the same manner subject to common and general regulations for the good of the whole. The charter containing their present system of education, was passed in the year 1785. A college, with ample and liberal endowments, is instituted in Louisville, a high and healthy part of the country, near the centre of the state. There is also provision made for the institution of an academy in each county in the state, to be supported from the same funds, and considered as parts and members of the same institution, under the general superintendance and direction of a president and board of trustees, appointed, for their literary accomplishments, from the different parts of the state invested with the customary powers of corporations. The institution, thus composed, is denominated "The University of Georgia."

That this body of literati, to whom is entrusted the direction of the general literature of the state, may not be so detached and independent as not to possess the confidence of the state; and in order to secure the attention and patronage of the principal officers of government, the governour and council, the speaker of the house of assembly, and the chief justice of the state, are associated with the board of trustees, in some of the great and more solemn duties of their office, such as making the laws, appointing the president, settling the property, and instituting academies. Thus associated, they are denominated "The Senate of the University," and are to hold a stated annual meeting, at which the governour of the state presides.*

The senate appoint a board of commissioners in each county, for the particular management and direction of the academy, and the other schools in each county, who are to receive their instructions from and are accountable to the senate. The rector of each academy

* Owing to the incomplete organization of the University, some deviations from this plan, in practice, have become necessary.

is an officer of the university, to be appointed by the president, with the advice of the trustees, and commissioned under the publick seal, and is to attend with the other officers at the annual meeting of the senate, to deliberate on the general interests of literature, and to determine on the course of instruction for the year, throughout the university. The president has the general charge and oversight of the whole, and is from time to time, to visit them, to examine into their order and performances.

The funds for the support of their institution are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to about fifty thousand acres, a great part of which is of the best quality, and at present very valuable. There are also nearly six thousand pounds sterling in bonds, houses and town lots, in the town of Augusta. The university is now organized with the proper officers, and established at Athens in Clarke county, and prospects of its future usefulness are promising.

Publick property to the amount of 1000l. in each county, has been set apart for the purposes of building and furnishing their respective academies. This property has been brought into useful operation in several of the counties, and the time is fast approaching when its beneficial effects will appear in those more recent and unimproved. The funds originally designed to support the literary orphan-house, founded by the Rev. George Whitefield, are chiefly in rice plantations and negroes, and have been in a very unproductive situation; but the legislature, in 1792, on the demise of the countess of Huntingdon, to whom Mr. Whitefield bequeathed this property, as trustee, passed a law vesting it in 13 commissioners, with independent powers, to carry the original intention of Mr. Whitefield into execution; and, in compliment to the countess, the seminary is styled Huntingdon College. The funds are now in a productive state; and the commissioners are paying off the debts contracted by former agents, and by the clergy whom the countess sent from England, in whose hands the institution was going fast to ruin. A number of respectable physicians of this state, in June 1804, associated under the name of the "Georgia Medical Society."

Indians.] The Muskogee or Creek Indians inhabit the middle parts of this state, and are the most numerous tribe of Indians of any within the limits of the United States. Their whole number, some years since, was 17,230, of which 5,860 were fighting men. They are composed of various tribes, who, after bloody wars, thought it good policy to unite and support themselves against the Chactaws, &c. They consist of the Apalachees, Alibamas, Abecas, Cawittaws, Coosas, Conshacks, Coosactees, Chacsihoomas, Natchez, Oconies, Oakmulgees, Okohoys, Pakanas, Taensas, Talepoosas, Weektumkas, and some others. Their union has rendered them victorious over the Chactaws, and formidable to all the nations around them. They are a well made, expert, hardy, sagacious, politick people, extremely jealous of their rights, and averse to parting with their lands. In November last, however, Col. Hawkins, succeeded in concluding a treaty with them for the lands included in the following bounds; "beginning at the high shoals of Apalachee, thence to Oakmulgee at the first fork above the Seven Islands (the mouth of Ulcofauhat-

che) then down the middle of Oakmulgee to Oconee, up the same, and the line of the land acquired by the treaty at Fort Wilkinson to the beginning, saving and reserving all the islands in Oakmulgee, and a district for a trading establishment to include the Oakmulgee old fields; beginning at the mouth of Oakchoncoolgan, thence two miles up the river in a straight line, thence at right angles down the river four miles, thence at right angles to the river, and up the same to the beginning."

They have abundance of tame cattle and swine, turkies, ducks, and other poultry; they cultivate tobacco, rice, Indian corn, potatoes, beans, peas, cabbage, melons, and have plenty of peaches, plums, grapes, strawberries, and other fruits. They are faithful friends, but inveterate enemies; hospitable to strangers, and honest and fair in their dealings. No nation has a more contemptible opinion of the white men's faith in general, than these people, yet they place great confidence in the United States, and wish to agree with them upon a permanent boundary, over which the southern states shall not trespass.

The country which they formerly claimed is bounded northward by about the 34th degree of latitude; and extended from the Tombeckbee or Mobile river to the Atlantick ocean; they have ceded a part of this tract on the sea-coast, by different treaties, to the state of Georgia. Their principal towns lie in lat. 32° and longitude 11° 20′ from Philadelphia. They are settled in a hilly but not mountainous country. The soil is fruitful in a high degree, and well watered, abounding in creeks and rivulets, from whence they are called the *Creek Indians.**

History.] The settlement of a colony between the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha, was meditated in England in 1732, for the accommodation of poor people in Great-Britain and Ireland, and for the further security of Carolina. Private compassion and publick spirit conspired to promote the benevolent design. Humane and opulent men suggested a plan of transporting a number of indigent families to this part of America, free of expense. For this purpose, they applied to the King, George II. and obtained from him letters patent, bearing date June 9th, 1732, for legally carrying into execution what they generously projected. They called the new province GEORGIA, in honour of the king, who encouraged the plan. A corporation consisting of 21 persons, was constituted by the name of the trustees for settling and establishing the colony of Georgia; which was separated from Carolina by the river Savannah. The trustees having first set an example themselves, by largely contributing to the

* The late General M'Gillivray, the celebrated chief of the Creeks, was a half blooded Indian, his mother being a woman of high rank in the Creek nation. He was so highly esteemed among them, that they, in a formal manner, elected him their sovereign, and vested him with considerable powers. He had several sisters married to leading men among the Creeks. This gentleman would gladly have remained a citizen of the United States; but having served under the British during the late war, his property in Georgia, which was considerable, was confiscated. This circumstance induced him to retire among his friends, the Creeks, and he remained, till his death, an active and zealous partizan in their interests and politicks.

scheme, undertook also to solicit benefactions from others, and to apply the money towards clothing, arming, purchasing utensils for cultivation, and transporting such poor people as should consent to go over and begin a settlement. They did not confine their charitable views to the subjects of Britain alone, but wisely opened a door for the indigent and oppressed Protestants of other nations. To prevent a misapplication of the money, it was deposited in the bank of England.

About the middle of July, 1732, the trustees for Georgia held their first meeting, and chose Lord Percival president of the corporation, and ordered a common seal to be made. In November following, 116 settlers embarked for Georgia, to be conveyed thither free of expense, furnished with every thing requisite for building and for cultivating the soil. James Oglethorpe, one of the trustees, and an active promoter of the settlement, embarked as the head and director of these settlers. They arrived at Charleston early in the next year, where they met a friendly reception from the governour and council. Mr. Oglethorpe, accompanied by William Bull, shortly after his arrival visited Georgia, and after reconnoitering the country, marked the spot on which Savannah now stands, as the fittest to begin a settlement. Here they accordingly began, and built a small fort, and a number of small huts for their defence and accommodation. Such of the settlers as were able to bear arms, were embodied, and well appointed with officers, arms and ammunition A treaty of friendship was concluded between the settlers and their neighbours, and the Creek Indians; and every thing wore the aspect of peace and future prosperity.

In the mean time, the trustees of Georgia had been employed in framing a plan of settlement, and establishing such publick regulations as they judged most proper for answering the great end of the corporation. In the general plan they considered each inhabitant both as a planter and a soldier, who must be provided with arms and ammunition for defence, as well as with tools and utensils for cultivation. As the strength of the province was the object in view, they agreed to establish such tenures for holding lands in it as they judged most favourable for a military establishment. Each tract of land granted was considered as a military fief, for which the possessor was to appear in arms, and take the field, when called upon for the publick defence. To prevent large tracts from falling, in process of time, to one person, they agreed to grant their land in tail male in preference to tail general. On the termination of the estate in tail male, the lands were to revert to the trust; and such lands thus reverting were to be granted again to such persons as the common council of the trust should judge most advantageous for the colony; only the trustees in such case were to pay special regard to the daughters of such persons as had made improvements on their lots, especially when not already provided for by marriage. The wives of such persons as should survive them, were to be, during their lives, entitled to the mansion house, and one half of the lands improved by their husbands. No man was permitted to depart the province without license. If any of the lands granted by the trustees shall not be cultivated, clear-

ed, and fenced round about with a worm fence, or pales, six feet high, within eighteen years from the date of the grant, such part was to revert to the trust, and the grant with respect to it to be void. All forfeitures for non-residences, high treasons, felonies, &c. went to the trustees for the use and benefit of the colony. The use of negroes was to be absolutely prohibited, and also the importation of rum. None of the colonists were to be permitted to trade with the Indians, but such as should obtain a special license for that purpose.

These were some of the fundamental regulations established by the trustees of Georgia, and perhaps the imagination could scarcely have framed a system of rules worse adapted to the circumstances and situation of the poor settlers, and of more pernicious consequence to the prosperity of the province. Yet, although the trustees greatly erred, with respect to the plan of settlement, it must be acknowledged their views were generous. As the people sent out by them were the poor and unfortunate, who were to be provided with necessaries at their publick store, they received their lands upon condition of cultivation, and (by their personal residence) of defence. Silk and wine being the chief articles intended to be raised, they judged negroes were not requisite for these purposes. As the colony was designed to be a barrier to South-Carolina, against the Spanish settlement at Augustine, they imagined that negroes would rather weaken than strengthen it, and that such poor colonists would run in debt, and ruin themselves by purchasing them. Rum was judged pernicious to health, and ruinous to the infant settlement. A free trade with Indians was a thing that might have a tendency to involve the people in quarrels and troubles with the powerful savages, and expose them to danger and destruction. Such were, probably, the motives which induced those humane and generous persons to impose such foolish and ridiculous restrictions on their colony. For, by granting their small estates in tail male, they drove the settlers from Georgia, who soon found that abundance of lands could be obtained in America upon a larger scale, and on much better terms. By the prohibition of negroes, they rendered it impracticable in such a climate to make any impression on the thick forests, Europeans being utterly unqualified for the heavy task. By their discouraging a trade with the West-Indies, they deprived the colonists of an excellent and convenient market for their lumber, of which they had abundance on their lands. The trustees, like other distant legislators, who framed their regulations upon principles of speculation, were liable to many errors and mistakes; and, however good their design, their rules were found improper and impracticable. The Carolinians plainly perceived that they would prove insurmountable obstacles to the progress and prosperity of the colony, and therefore, from motives of pity, began to invite the poor Georgians to come over Savannah river, and settle in Carolina, being convinced that they could never succeed under such impolitick and oppressive restrictions.

Besides the large sums of money which the trustees had expended for the settlement of Georgia, the parliament had also granted during the two last years 36,000l. towards carrying into execution the humane purpose of the corporation. But after the representation and

memorial from the legislature of Carolina reached Britain, the nation considered Georgia to be of the utmost importance to the British settlements in America, and began to make still more vigorous efforts for its speedy population. The first embarkations of poor people from England, being collected from towns and cities, were found equally idle and useless members of society abroad, as they had been at home. A hardy and bold race of men, inured to rural labour and fatigue, they were persuaded would be much better adapted both for cultivation and defence. To find men possessed of these qualifications, they turned their eyes to Germany and the Highlands of Scotland, and resolved to send over a number of Scotch and German labourers to their infant province. When they published their terms at Inverness, a hundred and thirty Highlanders immediately accepted them, and were transported to Georgia. A township on the river Alatamaha, which was considered as the boundary between the British and Spanish territories, was allotted for the Highlanders, in which dangerous situation they settled, and built a town, which they called New-Inverness. About the same time, a hundred and seventy Germans embarked with James Oglethorpe, and were fixed in another quarter; so that, in the space of three years, Georgia received above four hundred British subjects, and about a hundred and seventy foreigners. Afterwards, several adventurers, both from Scotland and Germany, followed their countrymen, and added further strength to the province, and the trustees flattered themselves with the hope of soon seeing it in a promising condition.

Their hopes, however, were vain. Their injudicious regulations and restrictions—the wars in which they were involved with the Spaniards and Indians—and the frequent insurrections among themselves, threw the colony into a state of confusion and wretchedness too great for human nature to endure. Their oppressed situation was represented to the trustees by repeated complaints; till at length, finding that the province languished under their care, and weary with the complaints of the people, they, in the year 1752, surrendered their charter to the king, and it was made a royal government. In consequence of which, his majesty appointed John Reynolds, an officer of the navy, governour of the province, and a legislature, similar to that of the other royal governments in America, was established in it. Great had been the expense which the mother country had already incurred besides private benefactions, for supporting this colony; and small had been the returns yet made by it. The vestiges of cultivation were scarcely perceptible in the forests, and in England all commerce with it was neglected and despised. At this time, the whole annual exports of Georgia did not amount to 10,000l. sterling. Though the people were now favoured with the same liberties and privileges enjoyed by their neighbours under the royal care, yet several years more elapsed before the value of the lands in Georgia was known, and that spirit of industry broke out in it, which afterwards diffused its happy influence over the country.

In the year 1740, the Rev. George Whitefield founded an orphan-house academy in Georgia, about 12 miles from Savannah. For the support of this, in his itinerations, he collected large sums of money

from all denominations of christians, both in England and America. A part of this money was expended in erecting proper buildings to accommodate the students, and a part in supporting them. In 1768, it was proposed that the orphan-house should be erected into a college. Whereupon Mr. Whitefield applied to the crown for a charter. In consequence of some dispute, the affair of a charter was given up and Mr. Whitefield made his assignment of the orphan-house in trust to the Countess of Huntingdon, as before mentioned. Mr. Whitefield died at Newburyport, in New-England, September 30th, 1770, in the 56th year of his age, and was buried under the Presbyterian church in that place.

Soon after his death, a charter was granted to his institution in Georgia, and the Rev. Mr. Percy was appointed president of the college. Mr. Percy accordingly came over to execute his office, but unfortunately, on the 30th of May, 1775, the orphan-house building caught fire, and was entirely consumed, except the two wings, which are still remaining.

From the time Georgia became a royal government, in 1752, till the peace of Paris, in 1763, she struggled under many difficulties, arising from the want of credit from friends, and the frequent molestations of enemies. The good effects of the peace were sensibly felt in the province of Georgia. From this time it began to flourish, under the fatherly care of Governour Wright. To form a judgment of the rapid growth of the colony, we need only attend to its exports, in the foregoing table.

During the late war, Georgia was overrun by the British troops, and the inhabitants were obliged to flee into the neighbouring states for safety. The sufferings and losses of her citizens were as great, in proportion to their numbers and wealth, as in any of the states.

Since the conclusion of the war, population, agriculture and commerce have increased with great rapidity; but these have been retarded by the wars and disputes with the Creek Indians, who have made frequent, though perhaps not in all instances unprovoked, attacks upon the frontier inhabitants. On the 13th of August, 1790, a treaty of peace and friendship was concluded, ratified and confirmed, between the United States and the head warriors of the Creek nation of Indians. Since that time immigrations have been frequent, and the state is fast increasing in wealth, population, and every kind of improvement. Wilkes county, which, in 1782, was little better than a wilderness, contained in 1790, when the census of the United States was taken, thirty-one thousand and five hundred persons.

This state, by an act of their legislature, passed in the beginning of 1795, sold to certain companies about 22,000,000 acres of its *Western Territory*, so called, and the purchase money, amounting to 500,000 dollars, was paid into the state treasury, agreeably to the terms of the act. This land was soon after sold at an advanced price, by the original purchasers, to various gentlemen, principally in the middle and eastern states.

The sale of this Territory excited a warm and violent opposition in Georgia. On the ground of bribery, corruption and unconstitutionality in the sale, a determination was formed by a powerful party,

to set aside and annul, at the succeeding session of the legislature, the doings of the former legislature, so far as they related to the sale of the said Territory. Efforts were accordingly made, and with success, to obtain a legislature suited to the accomplishment of their designs. The consequence was, that the legislature, in their session in the beginning of 1796, declared the aforesaid law, authorizing and sanctioning the sale of the Western Territory, to be unconstitutional and void, and ordered it to be *formally* burnt, together with all records, &c. which related to that business.

These proceedings were attended and followed, as may well be supposed, with most disagreeable and tumultuary effects. The original purchasers of these lands, the then holders, and all those who had been intermediately concerned, who had by this time become a numerous and respectable body, scattered through the United States, were, for the moment, thrown into an unpleasant dilemma, and for a time this business was the general topick of conversation. The ferment has since subsided. The purchasers seem to be generally satisfied, that the proceedings of the legislature cannot affect their title, and that it is good against all claims on the part of Georgia. What will be the issue of this business, we pretend not to predict.

The history of this state and the Carolinas has been written by the Rev. Mr. Hewett.

MISSISIPPI TERRITORY.

THIS Territory comprehends the western part of the state of Georgia, and is bounded north by Tennessee; west by the Missisippi river; south by West-Florida, east by Georgia.

This country, of which about 22,000,000 acres have been sold by the state of Georgia to several companies, having become an object of speculation and much publick attention, the following account of its rivers, soil, productions, advantages, &c. will not, it is presumed, be unacceptable.*

This country, a principal part of which belongs to, and is inhabited by, the Creek, Chactaw, Chickasaw and Cherokee nations of Indians, is washed by the Missisippi river on the west, and may be considered as extending eastward as far as the Apalachicola and Flint rivers. It is intersected by a great number of rivers, which run in every direction; the principal are the following, viz. Yazoo and Loosa Chitto, which empty into the Missisippi; Pearl, Pascagoula, Mobile, Alibama, Tombeckbee, Escambia, and Chatta Hatcha, which fall into the Gulf of Mexico; the Tennessee *Bend*, with Chuccamauga river, which falls into it from the south-east, water its northern part,

* The information is derived principally from a pamphlet, published in 1784, by Thomas Hutchins, Geographer to the United States, entitled "An Historical, Narrative and Topographical Description of Louisiana and West-Florida," comprehending a great part of the country above alluded to.

The Missisippi, the free navigation of which is granted to the United States by the late treaty with Spain, empties, by several mouths of different depths, from 9 to 16 feet, into the Gulf of Mexico. The bars at the mouths of this river freqently shift; after passing them into the river, there is from three to ten fathoms of water, as far as the south-west pass; and thence to the Missouri, a distance of 1,142 computed miles, from 12, 15, 20, and 30 fathoms is the general depth.

In ascending the Missisippi there are extensive natural meadows, with a prospect of the Gulf of Mexico on each side, the distance of 32 miles, to a place called Detour-aux-Plaquemines, in West-Florida. Thence 20 miles to the settlements, the banks are low and marshy, generally overflowed and covered with thick wood, palmetto bushes, &c. apparently impenetrable by man or beast. Thence to Detour-des-Anglois, at the bend of the river, the banks of the river are well inhabited; as also from hence to New-Orleans 18 miles, which distance there is a good road for carriages. Vessels pass from the mouth of this river to New-Orleans, 105 miles, in 7 or 8 days, commonly; sometimes in three or four.

From New-Orleans, which is the capital of Louisiana, there is an easy communication with West-Florida by Bayouk Creek, which is a water of lake Ponchartrain, navigable for vessels drawing four feet water, six miles up from the lake, to a landing place two miles from New-Orleans. For nearly 50 miles, as you proceed up the river, both its banks are settled and highly cultivated, in part by emigrants from Germany, who furnish the market with indigo of a superior quality, cotton, rice, beans, myrtle wax and lumber. In 1762, some rich planters attempted the cultivation of canes and the making of sugar, and erected mills for the purpose. The sugar which they made was of an excellent quality, and some of the crops were large; but some winters proving so severe as to kill the canes, no dependeuce can be placed on the culture of that article.

The settlements of the Acadians, which were begun in the year 1763, extend on both sides of the river, from the Germans to the river Ibberville, which is 99 miles above New-Orleans, and 270 from Pensacola, by way of lakes Ponchartrain and Mausepas.

At Point Coupee, 35 miles above the Ibberville, are settlements extending 20 miles on the west side of the river, which, 30 years ago, had 2,000 white inhabitants, and 7,000 slaves, who were employed in the cultivation of tobacco, indigo, Indian corn, &c. for the New-Orleans market, which they furnished also with poultry and abundance of squared timber, staves, &c.

Mr. Hutchins, from his personal knowledge, describes the country on both sides of the Missisippi, between the latitudes 30° and 31°, bordering on Georgia, as follows:

"Although this country might produce all the valuable articles raised in other parts of the globe, situated in the same latitudes, yet the inhabitants principally cultivate indigo, rice, tobacco, Indian corn, and some wheat; and they raise large stocks of black cattle, horses, mules, hogs, sheep and poultry. The sheep is said to be the sweetest mutton in the world. The black cattle, when fat enough for sale,

which they commonly are the year round, are driven across the country to New-Orleans, where there is always a good market.

This country is principally timbered with all the different kinds of oak, but mostly with live oak of the largest and best quality, uncommonly large cypress, black walnut, hickory, white ash, cherry, plum, poplar trees and grape vines; here is found also a great variety of shrubs and medicinal roots. The lands bordering the rivers and lakes are generally well wooded; but at a small distance from them are very extensive natural meadows, or savannas, of the most luxuriant soil, composed of a black mould about one and a half feet deep, very loose and rich, occasioned, in part by the frequent burning of the savannas; below the black mould is a stiff clay of different colours. It is s . , this clay, after being exposed some time to the sun, becomes so hard that it is difficult either to break or bend, but when wet by a slight shower of rain, it slackens in the same manner as lime does when exposed to moisture, and becomes loose and moulders away; after which it is found excellent for vegetation.

This country being situated between the latitudes of 30° and 31° north, the climate is of course very mild and temperate; white frosts and sometimes thin ice, have been experienced here; but snow is very uncommon."

As the Missisippi will be the great outlet for the produce of the western parts of Georgia, and the new states north of it, it was thought the foregoing description of it from its mouth upwards, and of the settlements on its banks, in East-Florida and Louisiana, would be useful in ascertaining the real advantages of the *Missisippi Territory*.

After passing the 31st degree of north latitude from East-Florida into Georgia, you enter what is called the *Natchez Country*, bordering on the Missisippi. Fort Rosalie, in this country, is in latitude 31° 40', 243 miles above New-Orleans.

"The soil of this country is superior to any of the lands on the borders of the river Missisippi, for the production of many articles. Its situation being higher, affords a greater variety of soil, and is in a more favourable climate for the growth of wheat, rye, barley, oats, &c. than the country lower down, and nearer to the sea. The soil also produces, in equal abundance, Indian corn, rice, hemp, flax, indigo, cotton, pot-herbs, pulse of every kind, and pasturage; and the tobacco made here is esteemed preferable to any cultivated in other parts of America. Hops grow wild; all kinds of European fruits arrive to great perfection, and no part of the known world is more favourable for the raising of every kind of stock. The climate is healthy and temperate; the country delightful and well watered; and the prospect is beautiful and extensive, variegated by many inequalities and fine meadows, separated by innumerable copses, the trees of which are of different kinds, but mostly of walnut and oak. The rising grounds, which are clothed with grass and other herbs of the finest verdure, are properly disposed for the culture of vines; the mulberry trees are very numerous, and the winters sufficiently moderate for the breed of silk worms. Clay of different colours, fit for glass works and pottery, is found here in great abundance; and also a variety of stately timber fit for house and ship building, &c. The elevated, open and

airy situation of this country renders it less liable to fevers and agues (the only disorders ever known in this neighbourhood) than some other parts bordering on the Missisippi, where the want of sufficient descent to convey the waters off occasions numbers of stagnant ponds, whose exhalations infect the air.

This country was once famous for its inhabitants, who from their great numbers, and the state of society they lived in, were considered as the most civilized Indians on the continent of America. Nothing now remains of this nation but their name, by which their country continues to be called. The district of the Natchez, as well as all along the eastern bank of the Missisippi to the river Ibberville, was settling very fast by daily emigrations from the northern states, till the capture of the British troops on the Missisippi, 1779, put an entire stop to it.

From Fort Rosailie to the Petit Goufre is 31½ miles. There is a firm rock on the east side of the Missisippi, for near a mile, which seems to be of the nature of lime-stone. The land near the river is much broken and very high, with a good soil, and several plantations on it.

From the Petit Goufre to Stony river is 4¼ miles. From the mouth to what is called the fork of this river, is computed to be 21 miles. In this distance there are several quarries of stone, and the land has a clay soil, with gravel on the surface of the ground. On the north side of this river the land, in general, is low and rich; that on the south side is much higher, but broken into hills and vales; but here the low lands are not often overflowed; both sides are shaded with a variety of useful timber. At the fork, the river parts almost at right angles, and the lands between, and on each side of them, are said to be clay and marl soil, not so uneven as the lands on this river lower down.

From Stony river to Lousa Chitto is 10 miles. This river, at the mouth, is about 30 yards wide, but within, from 30 to 50 yards, and is said to be navigable for canoes 30 or 40 leagues. About a mile and a half up this river, the high lands are close on the right, and are much broken. A mile and a half further, the high lands appear again on the right, where there are several springs of water, but none as yet have been discovered on the left. At about eight miles further, the high lands are near the river, on the left, and appear to be the same range that comes from the Yazoo cliffs. At six miles further, the high lands are near the river on both sides, and continue for two or three miles, but broken and full of springs of water. This land on the left was chosen by General Putnam, Captain Enos, Mr. Lyman, and other New-England adventurers, as a proper place for a town; and, by order of the governour and council of West-Florida, in 1773, it was reserved for the capital. The country round is very fit for settlements. For four or five miles above this place, on both sides of the river, the land is rich, and not so much drowned, nor so uneven, as some parts lower down. About six miles and a half further, there is a rapid water, stones and gravel bottom 160 yards in length; and in one place a firm rock almost across the river, and as much of it bare, when the water is at a moderate height, as con-

fines the stream to nearly 20 feet; and the channel is about four feet deep.

From the Lousa Chitto to the Yazoo cliffs is 39 miles and three quarters. From this cliff the high lands lie north-eastward and south-south-eastward, bearing off from the river, full of cane and rich soil, even on the very highest ridges. Just at the south end of the cliffs, the bank is low, where the water of the Missisippi, when high, flows back and runs between the bank and high land, which ranges nearly northerly and south-south-easterly to the Lousa Chitto, occasioning much wet ground, cypress swamp and stagnant ponds.

From the Cliffs, is seven miles and a half to the river Yazoo. The mouth of this river is upwards of 100 yards in width, and was found by Mr. Gauld to be in lat. 32° 37′ and by Mr. Purcel in 32° 28′ north. The water of the Missisippi, when the river is high, runs up the Yazoo several miles, and empties itself again by a number of channels, which direct their course across the country, and fall in above the Walnut hills. The Yazoo runs from the north-east and glides through a healthy, fertile and pleasant country, greatly resembling that about the Natchez, particularly in the luxuriancy and diversity of its soil, variety of timber, temperature of climate, and delightful situation. It is remarkably well watered by springs and brooks; many of the latter afford convenient seats for mills. Further up this river the canes are less frequent, and smaller in size, and at the distance of 20 miles there are scarcely any. Here the country is clear of underwood, and well watered, and the soil very rich, which continues to the Chactaw and Chickasaw towns. The former is situated on the eastern branch of the Yazoo, a hundred miles from the mouth of that river, and consists nearly of 140 warriors:* the towns of the latter are about 15 miles west of the north-west branch 150 miles from the Missisippi. They can raise upwards of 500 warriors. The above branches unite 50 miles from the Missisippi, following the course of the river; the navigation to their junction, commonly called the fork, is practicable with very large boats in the spring season, and with smaller ones a considerable way further, with the interruption of but one fall, where they are obliged to make a short portage, 20 miles up the north-west branch, and 70 miles from the Missisippi. The country in which the Chactaw and Chickasaw towns are situated, is said to be as healthy as any part of this continent, the natives scarcely ever being sick. Such of them as frequent the Missisippi, leave its banks as the summer approaches, lest they might partake of the fevers that sometimes visit the low swampy lands, bordering upon that river. Wheat, it is said, yields better at the Yazoo than at the Natchez, owing probably to its more northern situation. One very considerable advantage will attend the settlers on the river Yazoo, which those at the Natchez will be deprived of, without going to a great expense; I mean the building with stone, there being great plenty near the Yazoo, but none has yet been discovered nearer to the Natchez than the Petit Goufre, or little Whirlpool, a distance of 31 miles and a half. Between this place and the Balize there is not a stone to be seen any

* This account was written more than 20 years ago.

where near the river. Though the quantity of good land on the Missisippi and its branches, from the bay of Mexico to the river Ohio, a distance nearly of one thousand miles, is vastly great, and the conveniences attending it; so likewise may we esteem that in the neighbourhood of the Natchez, and of the river Yazoo, the flower of it all.

About a mile and a half up the Yazoo river, on the north side, there is a large creek, which communicates with the Missisippi above the river St. Francis, about 100 leagues higher up, by the course of the river. It passes through several lakes by the way. At the distance of twelve miles from the mouth of the river Yazoo, on the south side, are the Yazoo hills. There is a cliff of solid rock at the landing place, on which are a variety of broken pieces of sea shells, and some entire. Four miles further up is the place called the Ball Ground, near which a church, fort St. Petre, and a French settlement, formerly stood. They were destroyed by the Yazoo Indians, in 1729. That nation is now entirely extinct.

Pearl river rises in the Chactaw country, and is navigable upwards of 150 miles. It has seven feet water at its entrance, and deep water afterwards. In 1769, there were some settlements on this river, in which were raised tobacco, indigo, cotton rice, Indian corn, and various sorts of vegetables. The land produces many kinds of timber fit for pipe and hogshead staves, masts, yards, and all kinds of plank for ship-building.

Pascagoula river empties into the Gulf of Mexico by several mouths, which together occupy a space of three or four miles, which is one continued bed of oyster shells, with very shoal water. The westernmost branch has four feet water, and is the deepest. After crossing the bar, there is from three to six fathoms water for a great distance, and the river is said to be navigable more than 150 miles. The soil on this river, like that on all the others that pass through Georgia into the Gulf of Mexico, grows better as you advance to its source.

But the principal river in the territory of which we are now speaking is the Mobile, including its branches. On the bar at the entrance of the Bay of Mobile, there is only about 15 or 16 feet water; two thirds of the way through the Bay, towards the town of Mobile, there is from two to three fathoms; and the deepest water to be depended on in the upper part of the Bay is only 10 or 12 feet, and in many places not so much. Large vessels cannot go within 7 miles of the town.

The Bay of Mobile terminates a little to the north-eastward of the town, in a number of marshes and lagoons; which subject the people to fevers and agues in the hot seasons.

The river Mobile, as you ascend it, divides into two principal branches, about 40 miles above the town: one of which, called the Tansa, falls into the east part of the bay; the other empties itself close by the town, where it has a bar of seven feet; but there is a branch a little to the eastward of this, called Spanish river, where there is a channel of 9 or 10 feet, when the water is high, but this joins Mobile river about two leagues above the town.

Two or three leagues above the Tansa branch, the Alibama river falls into Mobile river, after running from the north-east a course

of about 130 miles; that is, from Alibama fort, situated at the confluence of the Coussa or Coosa, and Talpause or Talipoosa, both very considerable rivers; on which and their branches are the chief settlements of the upper Creek Indians.

The French fort at Alibama was evacuated in 1763, and has not since been garrisoned. Above the confluence of Alibama and Mobile, the latter is called the Tombeckbee river, from the fort of Tombeckbee situated on the west side of it, about 96 leagues above the town of Mobile. The source of this river is reckoned to be about 40 leagues higher up, in the country of the Chickasaws. The fort of Tombeckbee was taken possession of by the English, but abandoned again in 1767, by order of the commandant of Pensacola. The river is navigable for sloops and schooners about 35 leagues above the town of Mobile. The banks, where low, are partly overflowed in the rainy seasons, which adds greatly to the soil, and adapts it particularly to the cultivation of rice. The sides of the river are covered in many places with large canes, so thick that they are almost impenetrable; there is also plenty of remarkable large red and white cedar, cypress, elm, ash, hickory and various kinds of oak. Several people have settled on this river, who find the soil to answer beyond expectation.

The lands near the mouth of the Mobile river are generally low; as you proceed upwards, the land grows higher, and may with great propriety be divided into three stages. First, low rice lands, on or near the banks of the river of a most excellent quality. Secondly, what are called by the people of the country second low grounds, or level flat cane lands, about four or five feet higher than the low rice lands. And, thirdly, the high upland or open country. The first or low lands extend about a half or three quarters of a mile from the river, and may almost every where be easily drained and turned into most excellent rice fields, and are capable of being laid under water at almost all seasons of the year. They are a deep black mud or slime, which have in a succession of time been accumulated, or formed by the overflowing of the river.

The second low grounds being, in general, formed by a regular rising of about 4 or 5 feet higher than the low lands, appear to have been originally the edge of the river. This second class or kind of land is in general extremely rich and covered with large timber and thick strong canes, extending in width upon an average three quarters of a mile, and in general a perfect level. It is excellent for all kinds of grain, and well calculated for the culture of indigo, hemp, flax or tobacco.

At the extremity of these second grounds, you come to what is called the high or uplands, which is covered with pine, oak and hickory, and other kinds of large timber. The soil is of a good quality, but much inferior to the second or low land. It answers well for raising Indian corn, potatoes, and every thing else that delights in a dry soil. Further out in the country again, on the west side of this river, you come to a pine barren, with extensive reed swamps and natural meadows or savannas, which afford excellent ranges for innumerable herds of cattle.

On the east of the river Mobile, towards the river Alibama, is one entire extended rich cane country, not inferior perhaps to any in America.

Whenever portages are made between the Mobile and Tennessee river, or their branches, which are probably but a few miles apart, the Mobile will be the first river for commerce (the Missisippi excepted) in this part of the world, as it affords the shortest and most direct communication to the sea."

The river Escambia is the most considerable that falls into the Bay of Pensacola. There is a shoal near the entrance of this river, and vessels that draw more than five or six feet water cannot be carried into it, even through the deepest channel; but there are from 2 to 4 fathoms afterwards. Mr. Hutchins ascended this river upwards of 80 miles, where, from the depth of water, it appeared to be navigable for pettiaugers many miles further. This river has a very winding course. "The lands in general, on each side of the river, are rich low or swamp, admirably adapted for the culture of rice or corn, as may suit the planter best; and what gives these low lands a superiority over many others, is the great number of rivulets that fall into this river from the high circumjacent country, which may easily be led over any part of, or almost all the rice lands at any season of the year whatever. Near the mouth of this river are a great number of islands, some of very considerable extent, and not inferior for rice to any in America. The settlements made by Messrs. Tait and Mitchel, Capt. Johnson, Mr. M'Kinnon and some others, are very evident proofs of this assertion, who, in the course of two years from their first settlement, had nearly cleared all the expenses they had been at in making very considerable establishments; and I am well assured would entirely have done it in another year, had not the Spaniards taken possession of the country."

The Chatta Hatcha or Pea river, which also heads in the Missisippi Territory, empties from the north-east into Rose Bay, which is thirty miles long and from four to six broad. The bar at the entrance into the bay has only 7 or 8 feet water at deepest; but, after crossing the bar has 16 or 17 feet. The mouths of the river (for almost all the southern rivers have several mouths) are so shoal that only a small boat or canoe can pass them. Mr. Hutchins ascended this river about 75 miles, and found that its banks very much resembled those of Escambia.

The northern parts of this Territory are watered by the Tennessee, which has a circuitous course of many miles through the northern part of Georgia, and the Hiwassee and Chiccamauga rivers, which fall into the Tennessee from the south-east. Travellers speak of the lands on these waters in terms of the highest commendation. The Chiccamauga mingles its waters with the Tennessee near what is called *The Whirl*, and on its banks stand the Chiccamauga Indian towns. Its head branches are not far from the waters of Mobile river.

The mouth of the Hiwassee is 66 miles above the *Whirl*. A branch of the Hiwassee, called Amoia, almost interlocks with a branch of the Mobile. The portage between them is short, and the road all the distance firm and level.

In respect to the *Indians* who inhabit this Territory, a pretty full account of them has been given, under that head, in the foregoing account of Georgia.

Of the Territory now described, the state of Georgia, by act of their legislature, passed January 7th, 1795, sold about 22,000,000 of acres, to four different companies. These lands have been sold by the original purchasers chiefly in the Middle and Eastern States. Great and serious disputes* have arisen in respect to the title to these lands, which are now in a train of adjustment before a board of Commissioners on the part of Georgia and the Federal Government.

This Territory, in 1800, was erected into a distinct government, giving to the inhabitants the same privileges as are enjoyed by those of the North-western Territory and Indiana.

The inhabitants of this Territory have laudably commenced attention to the interests of literature in this part of the United States, by forming, in Oct. 1803, an association at Natchez, since incorporated by the name of "the Missisippi Society for the acquirement and dissemination of useful knowledge."

The Missisippi Territory is divided into three counties, viz.

Counties.	No. inh. in 1800.
Washington	1250
Pickering	2940
Adams	4660
Total,	8850 of which, 3489 were slaves.

Curiosities.] On the head waters of the Mobile are found oyster shells. They are of an astonishing size, and in such quantities as to forbid the idea of their being carried there from the sea, which is 300 miles distant. The Chickasaws say they were there when their fathers came into the country. They use the shells in making earthen ware. [*Imlay.*]

LOUISIANA.†

BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.

THE boundaries of Louisiana are not settled; its extent of course, cannot be ascertained. It is estimated, however, to contain nearly a million square miles.

Louisiana was ceded to the United States "with the same extent that it has in the hands of Spain, that it had when France possessed it." What then were the limits of Louisiana when in the hands of

* A full account of these disputes is given in the Appendix to the American Gazetteer, published 1797.

† The following account of Louisiana, was drawn up from the best materials then extant, with much labour and care, for the American Gazetteer, published the last year. It is now revised, improved and newly arranged.

France in 1762, and since it has been in possession of Spain? For these are to be its present limits. It is proper here to observe that *West-Florida* is known neither in French nor Spanish Geography. It originated with the British in 1763, at which time, all the country east of the Missisippi, except New-Orleans, was ceded to this nation, who then for the first time divided the territory south of Georgia, and east of the Ibberville, into East and West-Florida. This territorial division continued only till the country was taken by, and confirmed to Spain, in 1783, except in the books of English and American Geography. [*Mitchell's MS. Letter.*] "Before the treaty of peace, in 1762, Louisiana extended, in the French maps, from the Gulf of Mexico, to near 45 degrees of N. lat. on the W. side of the Missisippi, and to near 39 degrees on its eastern bank. Its boundaries were Canada on the north, New-York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Carolina, and the N. W. part of the easternmost peninsula of Florida on the east, the Gulf of Mexico south, and New-Mexico west." [*Hutchins.*] According to Du Pratz, Louisiana is bounded S. and W. as above; N. in part by Canada; "in part it extends without any assignable bounds, to the Terra incognitæ, adjoining to Hudson's bay; E. by the British provinces abovementioned, and by Rio Perdido, signifying Lost river, aptly so called by the Spaniards, because it loses itself under ground, and afterwards appears again and discharges itself into the sea a little to the E. of Mobile, on which the first French planters settled." These limits of Louisiana, as possessed by France and Spain, and acknowledged by other powers, are from the best authorities, and it is presumed may be considered as correct; and they give us the extent of our newly acquired territory; the boundaries of which, as far as can be ascertained, are as follows, viz. S. on the Gulf of Mexico, from the bay of St. Bernard, S. W. of the Missisippi, to the mouth of the Rio Perdido, above described; up this river to its source, and thence, (if it rise not N. of the 31st degree of lat.) on a straight line N. to that parallel; thence along the southern boundary of the United States W. to the Missisippi; then up this river to its source, as established by the treaty of 1783. Beyond this point the limits, (which are conjectural and have never been ascertained) may be considered as including all the country lying between the White Bear Lake, or other head of the Missisippi, and the source of the Missouri; and between this last and the head springs of the Arkansas, Red river, and other copious streams which fall into the Missisippi; or in other words, we may consider Louisiana as bounded N. and N.W. by the high lands, which divide the waters which fall into the St. Lawrence and Hudson's Bay, from those which fall into the Missisippi; W. by that high chain of mountains, known by the name of the *Shining Mountains*, which may be called the *Spine* or *Andes* of that part of North-America, and which turn the waters on the west of them to the Pacifick, and those on the east to the Atlantick Ocean. It embraces, in one word, the whole slope, or inclined plain fronting the S. E. and E. down which the streams of all sizes, flow into the bed of the Missisippi. On the S. W. it is bounded by New-Mexico, between which and Louisiana, the divisional line has never been settled. Some pretend

that this boundary is a right line from the head of Red river, to that of the Rio Bravo, and thence down its channel to the Gulf of Mexico. Others make the Rio Colerado, and others with more probability make the Rio Mexicano, the S. W. boundary of Louisiana.

Divisions.] Louisiana, as above defined, may naturally be divided into three grand divisions, viz. *Eastern*, *Lower* and *Upper Louisiana*.

The *Eastern* division comprehends all that part of this territory which lies E. of the Missisippi, bounded S. by the Gulf of Mexico, E. by Perdido river, N. by the Missisippi Territory, and W. by the Missisippi river. This division embraces the Island of New-Orleans, and is watered by the Mobile, Pascagoula, Pearl, Boguechito, Tansipaho, and Amit rivers, with Thompson's Creek, and Bayou Sara. [*Ellicott.*] The whole coast of this division embracing the old Biloxi district, which was the first inhabited by the French, whose dwellings were suddenly destroyed by "a great fire, consists of a very fine sand, white as snow, very injurious to the eyes, and so dry as not to be fit to produce any thing but pine, cedar, and some ever-green oaks." [*Du Pratz.*] The Mobile river "rolls its waters over a pure sand which cannot make it muddy."* It has few fish; and "its banks and neighbourhood are not very fertile. The ground is stony and scarce any thing but gravel mixed with a little earth." [*ibid.*] Between the Pascagoula and Missisippi rivers, some distance from the coast, "the country is intermixed with extensive hills, fine meadows, numbers of thickets, and sometimes with woods thick set with cane, particularly on the banks of rivers and brooks, and extremely proper for agriculture." [*ibid.*] The coast, though flat, sandy and dry, abounds with delicious shell and other fish, and affords security against the descent of an enemy.

Lower Louisiana, embraces that part of this territory bounded east by the Missisippi river, south by the Gulf of Mexico, S. W. and W. by New-Mexico, north by a line drawn from the Missisippi west, dividing the country in which stone is found from that where there is none. This line, according to Du Pratz, commences on the west side of the Missisippi, at Manchack in N. lat. 30° 20', and runs a varied course west to New-Mexico. This part of Louisiana is watered by Red river, and a great number of rivers which fall into the Gulf of Mexico. On both sides of the mouths of the Missisippi, which are unpleasant to the eye, quagmires, incapable of bearing up the traveller, and which afford a safe retreat for water fowl, gnats and musketoes, continue for more than 20 miles. All the coast from the Missisippi west, as far as St. Bernard's bay, and beyond, resembles the coast already described, of the eastern division, "it is equally flat, formed of a like sand, and a bar of isles, which lengthen out the coast, and hinder a descent; and its soil is barren." [*Du Pratz.*] In ascending the Missisippi, after you leave the marshes you come to narrow strips of firm land, bordered with marshes, on each side of the river, which for some distance are bare of trees, and afterwards are covered so thickly, as to intercept the winds in ascending the river; these narrow necks of land, fit for cultivation, are continued as far as the English

* This river in spring, after the rains of winter, is a fine river, but in summer is but a brook, especially towards its source. [*Dumont.*]

Turn. [*Du Pratz.*] This flat country is without stones or hills, and full of marshes and lakes. "It appears to have been formed by every thing that comes down to the sea. Pretty near the Natchitoches are found banks of muscle shells. The neighbouring nation affirms, that according to their old tradition, the sea formerly came up to this place. Every thing indeed in this country shews that the Lower Louisiana, as above defined, is a country gained from the sea, whose bottom is a crystal sand, white as snow, fine as flour, and such as is found both east and west of the Missisippi; and we may expect that in future ages, the river and sea, may form another tract of country like Lower Louisiana. The Fort Balize shews that a century is sufficient to extend Louisiana two leagues into the sea." [*Du Pratz.*]

"The greatest objection to this country, is, the difficulty of access to it. There is no river of any consequence, or port or harbour for ships or vessels, to the W. from the mouths of the Missisippi to the cape where the W. boundary of Louisiana commences; consequently, the only way to and from the Ocean, must be through the channel of the Missisippi, up as far as Red river, and thence up along that river to the high land in the Appalousa country, or Natchitoches, where the first high land fit for extensive settlements is to be found. From the Balize, or middle mouth of the Missisippi, which is the ship channel, up to the city of New-Orleans, it is about 100 miles; from New-Orleans to Manchac, at the mouth of the Ibberville, which is the northern extremity of the island, it is about 100 miles more. From thence up the Missisippi to the mouth of Red river it is about 200 miles further, and from the mouth of Red river to the first high land, it is conjectured cannot be much short of another 100 miles. Thus you have between 4 and 500 miles to ascend rivers with rapid currents, before you can step on the high grounds or country of Louisiana, fit for an extensive cultivation. There is another circumstance attending this country, not very generally known, which is, that the whole of the lands on the west side of the Missisippi, except a slip of one plantation deep, opposite part of the island of New-Orleans, and the settlement at Point Coupee, is a low sunken country, almost as far up as the Ohio; great part of it is covered for near 4 months in the year, with water from 20 to 30 feet deep, and extending nearly 30 miles back from the edge of the river, while on the contrary, on the east side, except here and there a few low places, is a high bold country. It is across those low grounds on the west side principally, that the vast quantity of surplus waters, which flow into the Missisippi above, are discharged; the channel of that river alone, which is upon an average not more than three fourths of a mile wide, could not vent the fiftieth part of these surplus waters, if it was not conveyed over these low grounds, through ten thousand chanels, towards Lake Barrataria and other lakes, on the north coast of the Gulf of Mexico and St. Bernard's Bay, and others towards the confines of Mexico, which makes all the country to the west and south of the Missisippi, a low, uninhabited country for many hundred miles up, and what is worse, the labour of man cannot prevent it."* The Missisippi is the principal

* The preceding remarks are from a paper published in Charleston, (S. C.) said to be from the pen of a person correctly informed on the subject.

river of Louisiana, and the largest in the United States. It rises in white Bear Lake lat. 48° 15′ N. Its course is southerly, and its tributary streams large and numerous. In lat. 37° 0′ 23″ N. lon. 5h. 55′ 38″ W. from Greenwich. It receives the Ohio, a noble river, 1188 miles. The confluence of these mighty rivers does not present a scene grand or romantick. The country is level, and the prospect of their union is not different from the meeting of sounds or rivers on the sea coast. These rivers unite in that immense swamp through which the Missisippi passes into the Gulf of Mexico. This swamp extends from the high lands in the United States to the high lands in Louisiana, through different parts of which the river has had its course at different times. It is generally from 36 to 45 miles in width; which at every inundation is many feet under water; the greater part of it being on the west side of the river. From the mouth of the Ohio to the southern line of the United States there are but two or three places not covered with water a part of every year, and those for a time are annually insulated. On the east side are eleven places elevated above the highest floods. Like the Nile and all rivers subject to inundation, the banks are higher on the margin of the river than at a distance from them. Those swamps and lakes, which communicate immediately with the Gulf of Mexico, never become full, consequently streams run from the Missisippi into them till its waters fall. On these periodical and temporary streams valuable saw mills are erected in the vicinity of New-Orleans. The first permanent body of water, which leaves the Missisippi, and seeks the Gulf of Mexico by another channel, is the Chafalia. It has made its way through the western bank, just below the southern line of the United States, and when the water of the river is high, its current is strong, frequently drawing rafts and boats down its channel, which are generally lost. Notwithstanding the magnitude of this stream, it is not navigable to the Gulf of Mexico. It has formed an immense floating bridge of trees, so compact, that cattle and horses are driven over it. During the inundation a considerable stream called the Bayou Manchac or Ibberville, leaves the Missisippi on the east side of Manchac, which falls into the river Amit, which passes through lake Maurepas into lake Pontchartrain, which by several openings near the mouth of Pearl or Half Way river, communicates with the Gulf of Mexico. This for a part of the year places New-Orleans on an island, which may be called the Delta of Louisiana. A few miles below Manchac on the west side, another branch called Plaquemin, proceeds from the Missisippi, and by several mouths falls into the Gulf of Mexico; from this branch there is a water communication with the Opelousas. At some distance below this on the same side a stream called La Fourche proceeds to the Gulf of Mexico, into which it falls by two channels or mouths. Between New-Orleans and the Balize the Missisippi has several communications with the Gulf of Mexico, but they are generally too shallow to have much importance. [*Ellicott.*]

Red River has its source not far remote from that of Rio Bravo or Rio del Norte, on which the city of Santa Fe is built, and in the same mountains in which the Missouri heads. It is said that boats ascend 1000 miles above the settlements of the Natchitoches. There is said to be a chain of mountains lying E. and W. forming nearly a right

angle with the great N. and S. chain. The source of Red River may be supposed to be in this corner as it were of Louisiana, and separated by the mountains of Santa Fe, from the southern country beyond, whose streams run southwardly into the bay of St. Bernard. [*Mitchill.*]

"On each side of Red River are some scattering settlements for about 50 miles, to Bayan Rapide, on which are about 100 families. The land here, in point of fertility, is inferior to none in the world; and for about 40 miles hence, to the beginning of the Appalusa prairies, passing Bayan Robert, and Bayan Bœuf (on which a few settlements are beginning) the country is equally rich, and as well timbered as any land can be. It is perfectly level (resembling a river bed) the soil 20 feet deep, and like a bed of manure. Higher up Red river, the banks and low grounds (which are 5 or 6 miles wide) are nearly of the same quality as the lands on Bayan Rapide, with only this difference, being of a texture somewhat looser, which is perhaps an advantage. Here are but few settlements, till you arrive at the river Cane Settlements (so called) which is 60 or 70 miles higher up Red river. From this up to the village or port of Natchitoches, which is about 50 miles, and for 25 miles above it, the banks of one branch of Red river are settled in the same manner as the Missisippi. It is impossible to conceive of more beautiful fields and plantations, or more luxuriant crops of corn, cotton and tobacco. The town or port of Natchitoches, (where is a church, the residence of the commandant, priest, 10 or 12 merchants, and 30 or 40 families) was formerly a French garrison, and an out post. It is handsomely situated on a hill, which overlooks a great extent of well cultivated fields: it was much larger 50 or 60 years ago than at present, owing to many of the inhabitants, who before lived in the garrison, having, within these 30 or 40 years past, settled on plantations up and down the river. From this place the great western road takes off towards Mexico, and it will ever be an important place, being the key to an immense rich country. The population of the district of Natchitoches, is between 4 and 5000. The low grounds of Red river, are generally 5 or 6 miles wide, and no soil can be richer, and nearly all alike; considerable part of which is overflowed annually in the month of April; but it continues up but a short time, and always falls in time to plant corn and tobacco, and rises no more till the same time the next year. There are fields that, from the best account I can obtain, have been planted successively for near 100 years in corn or tobacco, and never known to fail in producing plentiful crops, nor is the soil apparently in the least exhausted. It is particularly favourable for tobacco, which grows remarkably luxuriant, and has a very fine flavour. The soil has a saline impregnation, which imparts something of it to the tobacco. The well and river water is somewhat brackish. One hand here can make as much tobacco in a season, as 4 or 5 on the best lands in Virginia or North-Carolina. It is made without any hills being raised, and grows so quick (from the strength and warmth of the soil) that they usually cut it three times: when prepared for market, it is stemmed and made into twists of five pounds each. From 80 to 100 bushels of corn can be made to the acre. Cotton

produces equally well. The gardens on the natural soil (for they cannot be made richer with manure) are not less astonishing or extraordinary. I have particularly observed the very great height to which the artichoke grows; they are usually 10 feet, and very frequently 12 and 15 feet high. In the neighbourhood of Natchitoches are several salt springs, the waters of which are at least three times as strong as sea water. Two men, with 10 or 12 old pots and kettles, supply the settlement on Red river with salt. The springs are almost inexhaustible, and would admit of very large quantities of salt being made from them. There are likewise plenty of iron and copper ore, pit coal, shell and stone lime. The different branches of the river, the lakes, creeks and bayans, abound with very fine fish, cockles, soft shelled turtle and shrimps, and in winter great varieties of wild fowl. This country is far from being sickly. The river being very deep, does not get much heated; the houses are immediately on its banks, which are kept perfectly clean; and the water being saltish, prevents the exhalation of sickly vapours; and it is happily freed from many of those troublesome insects so common in the southern states, particularly the bed bug. The moschetto is very rarely seen here. The high lands, which are all vacant and unsettled, are covered with a thick growth of oak, hickory, ash, gum, sassafras, dogwood, buck-eye, grape-vines, &c. intermixed with some short leaved pine, and interspersed with prairies, creeks, lakes, and fountains: it is not mountainous but gently rising hills and vallies, and generally a strong clay soil. But the appearance of both the timber and land is very much injured by the frequent burning of the woods. The country on Red river is most valuable, begins about 50 or 60 miles above the upper settlements, and extends 4 or 500 miles. The river there never overflows its banks; the low grounds are wide and from the river for 40 miles on each side, the lands are remarkably rich, interspersed with handsome prairies, beautiful streams and fountains; also quarries of free-stone, lime, flint, slate, grit, and almost every kind of stone. In ascending Red river about 30 miles from the mouth of it, Black river falls in on the N. side; this is always a clear navigable stream for 5 or 600 miles. About 100 miles up, it branches, at the same place, in three different directions. The east branch, called the Tensaw, is navigable for many miles, affords rich land, which is all vacant. The middle or main branch, called Washeta, is navigable 500 miles, on which is an old settlement, affords excellent lands, salt springs, lead ore, and plenty of very good mill and grind stones. The western branch, called Catahola, (on which are 20 or 30 families newly settled) runs through a beautiful rich prairie country, in which is a large lake called Catahola lake. On this lake are said to be a great number of salt springs, and very remarkable accounts are given of the fish and fowl of which it abounds. On the river called Ozark, are many valuable tracts of land, some of which are settled. The same of white river and Saint Francois." [*Sibley.*]

Upper Louisiana, comprehends all the remainder of this territory, and is the largest and most valuable part. It has Lower Louisiana S. the the Missisippi E. and N.; and W. the highlands and mountains which divide the waters of the St. Lawrence, Hudson's Bay, and the Pacif.

ick Ocean, from those of the Missisippi. It is watered by Red river, the Arkansas, St. Francis, and the Missouri, with a vast number of smaller streams, which fall into these or the Missisippi. " From the lower settlement, at Sans la Grace, to the upper settlements on the Missouri (a distance of upwards of 250 miles) containing a population of 50 or 60,000, is a country equal to Kentucky, or any part of our western territory ; and the lead and iron mines contained in it, render it a country of vast importance." [*Sibley.*] " The bottom of the lands on the hills, is a red clay, and so compact as might afford a solid foundation for any building. This clay is covered by a light earth almost black, and very fertile. The grass grows here knee high ; and in the bottoms, which separate these small eminences, it is higher than the tallest man. Towards the end of September this grass is set on fire ; and in 8 or 10 days after, young grass shoots up half a foot high. One will easily judge that in such pastures herds of all creatures fatten extraordinarily." [*Du Pratz.*] As you advance northward towards the Arkansas and St. Francis, the country becomes more beautiful and fertile, abounding in various kinds of game, as beavers, &c. herds of deer, elk, and buffaloes, of from 6 to 100 in a drove, are frequently met with in this wilderness. In this vicinity have been found specimens of rock crystal, plaster of Paris, lead and iron ore, lime-stone and pit coal. [*ibid.*] This country, according to Father Hennepin, has all the trees common in Europe, beside others not known there. Here are the finest cedars in the world, and a tree yielding a fragrant gum, which exceeds the best European perfumes. The cotton trees are so large that the Indians make canoes out of their trunks, 100 feet long. Hemp grows here naturally ; tar is produced from the pines on the sea coast ; and the country affords every material for ship building. Here are " vast meadows which need not be grubbed up but are ready for the plough and seed. Beans grow without culture ; and their stalks subsist several years, bearing fruit at the proper seasons. The stalks are as big as one's arm, and like ivy, climb the highest trees. The peach trees are so fruitful that they break if not supported. The forests are full of mulberry and plum trees. Here are pomegranate and chesnut trees covered with vines, whose grapes are very large and sweet. They have 3 or 4 crops of Indian corn in one year ; for they have no other winter than some rains. Mines of pit coal, lead and copper were shewn us by the Indians ; also quarries of free stone, and of black, white and jasper like marble, of which they make their calumets." [*Hennepin's New Dis. of a large country in America, p.* 139.] One species of timber, which is common from the mouth of the Ohio down the Missisippi swamp, is cotton wood. It resembles the Lombardy poplar in the quickness of its growth, and the softness of the timber. There are also the papaw and black ash, button wood or sycamore, hickory, and cypress. This last is a valuable kind of timber, and grows in great abundance. Here is also wild cherry, sassafras, beech, chesnut and Bermudian mulberry trees. From the walnut hills to Point Coupee, and easterly 15 or 20 miles, the whole country in its natural state was one continued cane brake. The cane is generally 36 feet high, often 42 ; intermingled with a smaller species, they continue

thence on all the creeks to the Gulf of Mexico. [*Ellicott.*] In the south-western part of lower Louisiana, bordering on New-Mexico, the lands are excellent, covered in some places with open woods of tall trees, through which one may, without difficulty, ride on horseback; in other places the woods are thicker. Meadows of a rich soil are interspersed, the whole country is watered by numerous rivers, and inhabited by an abundance of wild animals, and other game. A ridge of high land from one to six leagues in breadth, commences some distance west of the Missisippi, and continues quite to New-Mexico. The Red river bounds it on the north, towards which it declines by windings, where it is diversified alternately with meadows and woods. The top of this ridge is almost bare, producing a fine grass which grows between the stones. The buffaloes, when driven from the plains by the rain, feed on this grass, but because they find here neither water nor salt-petre, they at other times confine themselves to the plains. As all cloven footed animals are extremely fond of salt, it is worthy of remark, that Louisiana, in general, contains a great deal of salt-petre. [*Du Pratz.*]

"When compared with the Indiana territory, the face of the country in Upper Louisiana is rather more broken, though the soil is equally fertile. It is a fact not to be contested, that the west side of the river possesses some advantages, not generally incident to those regions. It is elevated and healthy, and well watered with a variety of large rapid streams, calculated for mills and other water works. From cape Giraudeau, above the mouth of the Ohio, to the Missouri, the land on the east side of the Missisippi is low and flat, and occasionally exposed to inundations; that on the Louisiana side contiguous to the river, is generally much higher and in many places very rocky on the shore. Some of the heights exhibit a scene truly picturesque. They rise to a height of at least 300 feet, faced with perpendicular *lime and freestone*, carved into various shapes and figures by the hand of nature, and afford the appearances of a multitude of antique towers! From the tops of these elevations, the land gradually slopes back from the river, without gravel or rock, and is covered with valuable timber. It may be said with truth that, for fertility of soil, no part of the world exceeds the borders of the Missisippi; the land yields an abundance of all the necessaries of life and almost spontaneously; very little labour being required in the cultivation of the earth: That part of Upper Louisiana, which borders on New-Mexico is one immense *prairie;* it produces nothing but grass; it is filled with buffaloe, deer, and other kinds of game; the land is represented as too rich for the growth of forest trees. It is pretended that Upper Louisiana contains in its bowels many silver and copper mines, and various specimens of both are exhibited. Several trials have been made to ascertain the fact; but the want of skill in the artists has hitherto left the subject undecided. The salt works are also pretty numerous; some belong to individuals; others to the publick. They already yield an abundant supply for the consumption of the country; and if properly managed, might become an article of more general exportation. The usual price per bushel is 156 cents in *cash* at the works. This price will be still lower as soon as the manufac-

ture of the salt is assumed by government, or patronized by men who have large capitals to employ in the business. One extraordinary fact relative to the salt must not be omitted. There exists about 1000 miles up the Missouri, and not far from that river, *a Salt Mountain ! !* The existence of such a mountain might well be questioned, were it not for the testimony of several respectable and enterprising traders, who have visited it, and who have exhibited several bushels of the salt to the curiosity of the people of St. Louis, where some of it still remains. A specimen of the same salt has been sent to Marietta. This mountain is said to be 180 miles long, and 45 in width, composed of solid rock salt, without any trees, or even shrubs on it ! ! Salt springs are very numerous beneath the surface of the mountain, and they flow through the fissures and cavities of it. Caves of saltpetre are found in Upper Louisiana, though at some distance from the settlements. Four men on a trading voyage, lately discovered one several hundred miles up the Missouri. They spent 5 or 6 weeks in the manufacture of this article, and returned to St. Louis with 400cwt. of it. It proved to be good and sold for a high price. The geography of the Missisippi and Missouri, and their contiguity for a great length of way, are but little known. The traders assert that, 100 miles above their junction, a man may walk from one to the other in a day; and it is also asserted, that 700 miles still higher up, the portage may be crossed in four or five days. This portage is frequented by traders, who carry on a considerable trade with some of the Missouri Indians. Their general route is through Green Bay, which is an arm of Lake Michigan; they then pass into a small lake connected with it, and which communicates with the Fox river; they then cross over a short portage into the Ouisconsing river, which unites with the Missisippi some distance below the falls of St. Anthony. It is also said that the traders communicate with the Missisippi above these falls, through Lake Superior, but their trade in that quarter is much less considerable." [*Jefferson.*]

Subdivisions and Population.] We have already divided Louisiana, as ceded to the United States, into three grand divisions, viz. Eastern, Lower and Upper Louisiana. We shall now notice their subdivisions. It will be proper previously to remark, that the modern divisional line between Upper and Lower Louisiana does not correspond with the one already described by Du Pratz, separating the territory *without* from the territory *with* stones; it commences much higher up the Missisippi, at La Petite Prairie, near New-Madrid, about lat. 36° 30′ N. The best view of the subdivisions and population of Louisiana, is contained in the following table, which has the stamp of official authority, having been communicated to Congress by the President of the United States, in the appendix of his account of Louisiana.

Names and situation of the posts or districts.	Whites.	Free People of colour.	Slaves.	Total.
Balize to New-Orleans	——	——	——	2388
San Bernado or Terre aux bœufs, on a creek running from the English turn E. to the sea and lake Borgna				661
City of New-Orleans and suburbs	3948	1335	2773	8056
Bayou St. Jean & Chantilly between the city and lake Pontchartrain				489

Names and situations of the posts and districts.	Whites.	Free people of colour.	Slaves.	Total.
Coast of Chapitoulas, or along the banks of the Mississippi, 6 leagues upwards				1444
First German Coast, from 6 to 10 leagues upwards on both banks	688	113	1620	2421
Second do. from 10 leagues and ending at 16 do.	883	21	1046	1950
Catahanose, or first Acadian Coast, commencing at 16 leagues above the city and ending at 23 on both banks	1382		818	2200
Fouche or second Acadian Coast from 23 to 30 leagues above town	677		464	1141
Valenzuela or settlements on the bason de la Fouche running from the west side of the Missisippi to the sea, and called in old maps the Fourche or Riviere des Callimachas	1797		267	2064
Ibberville Parish, commencing at about 30 leagues from Orleans and ending at the river of the same name	653	13	386	1057
Galveztown, situated on the river Ibberville, between the Missisippi, and Lake Maurepas, opposite the mouth of the Amit	213	8	26	247
Government of Baton Rouge, including all the settlements between the Ibberville and the line of demarkation	958	16	539	151
Pointe Coupee and False river behind it 50 leagues from Orleans, on the W. side of the Missisippi	547		1603	2150
Atacapas, on the rivers Teche and Vermillion, &c. to the W. of the Missisippi, and near the sea	859	58	530	1447*
Opelousas adjoining to, and to the N. E. of the foregoing	1646		808	2454
Ouachita on the river of the same name, or upper part of the Black river, which empties into the river Rouge				361
Avoyelles on the Red river about — leagues from the Missisippi	336	2	94	432
Rapide on do. about — leagues higher up	584		169	753

* An official document of July, 1803, states the No. of inhabitants at Atacapas at 2270 whites, 210 free inhabitants of colour, and 1266 slaves, total, 3746. The returns from Opelousas, are supposed to be underrated. [*Jefferson.*]

Names and situations of the posts or districts.	Whites.	Free people of colour.	Slaves.	Total.
Natchitoches on do. about 75 leagues from the Missisippi	785		846	1631
Concord, an infant settlement on the banks of the Missisippi, opposite Natchez	No. unknown.			
Arkansas, on the river of the same name, about 12 leagues from its mouth	335	5	48	308
Spanish Illinois, or Upper Louisiana, from La Petite Prairie, near New-Madrid, to the Missouri, inclusive, viz.				
St. Louis, on the Missisippi, five leagues below the Missouri	601	56	268	925
Carondelet, on the Missisippi two leagues below St. Louis	181		3	184
St. Charles, on the Missouri seven leagues from its mouth, and six from St. Louis by land	840		55	895
St. Fernando, or Harisseret, three leagues from St. Louis on the road to St. Charles	259		17	276
Marias de liards, a league W. of St. Fernando,	337		42	379
Maramee, on the river of its name	115			115
St. Andrews, 5 leagues above St. Charles on the Missouri	361	32		393
St. Genevieve, on the Missisippi opposite Kaskaskias	636	3	310	949
New-Bourbon, a league below St. Genevieve	445	1	114	560
Cape Girardeau	416	105		521
New-Madrid, on the Missisippi, 15 leagues below the mouth of Ohio	711		71	782
Little Meadow, 7 leagues below New-Madrid, on the west bank of the Missisippi	46		3	49
Mobile and country between it and Orleans, and borders of Lake Pontchartrain				800
Pensacola, exclusive of the garrison (not exceeding)				300
	21,244	1,768	12,920	42,375

"This census is taken from the latest returns, but is manifestly incorrect, the population being underrated; from some places there have been no returns for the last seven years, and from those made this year it is easy to see that certain causes induced the inhabitants to give in short returns of their slaves and of their own num-

bers. The Spanish government is fully persuaded that the population at present considerably exceeds 50,000 souls." "A conjectural estimation made by a gentleman of great respectability, and correct information, residing at Natchez, raises the number of whites in the island of Orleans, on the W. side of the river and some settlements on the E. side to 50,150, and the No. of blacks to 39,820. His statement follows.

Names and situation of the posts or districts.	Whites.	Blacks.	Militia.
1. The island of New-Orleans with the opposite margin and settlements adjacent computed at	25000	25000	5000
2. The west margin from Manchac including Point Coupee and extending to the Red river	4000	5000	800
3. Atacapas, along the sea-coast between the Delta of the Missisippi and the western boundary	1600	2000	350
4. Opelousas, on the N. of Atacapas	3750	3500	750
5. Red river, including Bayou Bœuf, Avoyelle, Rapide and Natchitoches, (the two first bounding on Opelousas)	5000	3000	1000
6. Ouchita (river falling into the Red river from the N.)	1200	100	300
7. Concord, a settlement on the margin of the river opposite to Natchez	200	70	40
8. Arkansas river	600		150
9. New-Madrid and vicinity	1750	50	350
10. Illinois and Missouri	4000	500	1000
Total,	47,150	39,220	9,740
Note. The settlements of Baton Rouge and New-Feliciana, on the east side of the river, lying between the line of demarkation lat. 31° and the Ibberville, including some establishments on the river Amit, &c. contain,	3000	600	600
	50,150	39,820	10,340

"The inhabitants of Louisiana are chiefly the descendants of the French and Canadians. There are a considerable number of English and Americans in New-Orleans. The two German coasts are peopled by the descendants of settlers from Germany, and a few French mixed with them. The three succeeding settlements up to Baton Rouge contain mostly Acadians, banished from Nova-Scotia by the English and their descendants. The government of Baton Rouge, especially the E. side which includes all the country between the Ibberville and the American line is composed partly of Acadians, a very few French, and of a great majority of Americans. On the W. side they are mostly Acadians: at Point Coupee and Fausee river they are French and Acadians; of the population of

the Atacapas and Opelousas, a considerable part is American; Natchitoches on the Red river, contains but a few Americans, and the remainder of the inhabitants are French; but the former are more numerous in the other settlements on that river, viz. Avoyelles, Rapide, and Ouacheta. At Arkansas they are mostly French; and at New-Madrid, Americans. At least two fifths, if not a greater proportion of all the settlers on the Spanish side of the Missisippi, in the Illinois country, are likewise supposed to be Americans. Below New-Orleans the population is altogether French and the descendants of Frenchmen." [*Jefferson.*] The natives of the southern part of the Missisippi are sprightly, have a turn for mechanicks, and the fine arts, but their system of education is so wretched that little real science is obtained. Many of the planters are opulent, industrious, and hospitable. [*Ellicott.*]

"There is a militia in Louisiana. The following is the return of it, made to the Court of Spain, by the Baron of Carondelet.

	Militia.
From Balize to the city; volunteers of the Missisippi; 4 companies of 100 men each complete,	400
City; Battalion of the city, 5 companies,	500
Artillery company, with supernumeraries,	120
Carabineers, or privileged companies of horse, 2 companies of 70 each; incomplete,	100
Mulattoes, 2 companies; negroes, 1 do.	300
Mixed legion of the Missisippi, comprehending Galveztown, Baton Rouge, Point Coupee, Atacapas, and Opelousas, viz.	
2 companies of Grenadiers,	
8 do. of fusiliers,	
4 do. of dragoons,	
2 do. lately added from Bayou Sara,	
16 companies of 100 men each,	1600
Avoyelles 1 company of infantry,	100
Oucheta, 1 do. of cavalry,	100
Natchitoches, 1 do. of infantry and 1 of cavalry,	200
Arkansas, 1 do. of infantry and cavalry,	100
Illinois, 4 do. of cavalry, 4 do. of infantry, } These are always above the complement.	800
Provincial regiment of Germans and Acadians, from the first German coast to Ibberville.	
10 companies, viz. 2 of grenadiers, 8 of fusiliers,	1000
Mobile and the country E of lake Pontchartrain, 2 companies of horse and foot incomplete,	120
	5440

A gentlemen of respectability, makes the number of the militia to amount to 10,340 men within the same limits to which the last estimate of the population applies. He distributes them in the several settlements as follows:

1. The islands of New-Orleans, with the opposite margin and the adjacent settlements,	5000
2. The west margin from Manchac, including Point Coupee, and extending to the Red river,	800
3. Atacapas, along the coast, between the Delta of the Missisippi and the river Sabine,	350
4. Opelousas,	750
5. Red river, including Bayou Bœuf, Avoyelles, Rapide, and Natchitoches,	1000
6. Ouachita,	300
7. Concord,	40
8. Arkansas,	150
9. New-Madrid and its vicinity,	350
10. Illinois and Missouri,	1000
11. The settlements on the east side of the Missisippi, from the American line to the Ibberville, and some other settlements,	600
	10,340

It is to be observed, that none of these statements include the country beyond the river Sabine, nor even all those which lie eastwardly of it. Data are also wanting to give them." [*Jefferson.*]

Climate.] During the winter the weather is very changeable, generally throughout Lower, and the southern part of Upper Louisana. In summer it is regularly hot. In the latitude of the Natchez, Farenheit's thermometer ranges from 17 to 96°. The average degree of heat, is stated to be 14° greater than in Pennsylvania. [*Ellicott.*] The climate of Louisiana varies in proportion as it extends northward. Its southern parts are not subject to the same degree of heat, as the same latitudes in Africa, nor its northern parts to the same degree of cold as the corresponding latitudes in Europe; owing to the thick woods which cover the country, and to the great number of rivers which intersect it. The former prevent the sun from scorching the earth; the latter cause a great degree of humidity which softens the air, and prevents extreme cold. [*Du Pratz.*] The prevailing diseases on the lower part of the Ohio, on the Missisippi, and through the Floridas, are bilious fevers. In some seasons they are mild, and are little more than common intermittents; in others they are highly malignant, and approach the genuine yellow fever of the West-Indies. [*Ellicott.*]

Minerals and Salt waters.] Above the Nachitoches dwell the Cadodaquiebos Indians. Near one of their villages is a rich silver mine. The silver lies in a stone of chesnut colour. Further north is another silver mine. Lead ore is also found in different places; also iron ore pit coal, marble, slate, and plaster of Paris. Ascending Black river, about 30 leagues, it receives from the west a brook of salt water. Its source is a lake of salt water 2 leagues distant, which is about 6 miles long, and 3 broad; 3 miles north of this is another salt lake nearly as large. North of Red river is a spring of water very salt. [*Du Pratz.*] About 600 miles up the Missouri are found large quantities of fossil salt. Whole hills of it are near the river; and, from specimens which have been exhibited, it appears of an ex-

cellent quality. The lead ore at St. Genevieve is remarkably pure and productive. There is no regular company for procuring and working it; but the settlers at their leisure dig for it, satisfied with what they find within 15 feet depth. Mr. Austin (from Connecticut) settled in the neighbourhood, purchases considerable of the inhabitants for the works he has set up for making sheet lead and shot. It is found to yield from 60 to 74 per cent. from the native ore. The common method the people use for smelting it, is only to make a fire with logs and decayed timber, and then pile on the ore and let it melt, and take up the lead from the ashes of the heap. [*Gilman.*]

From a description of the lead mines in Upper Louisiana which was laid before Congress the beginning of the year 1805, it appears, that no less than 10 lead mines have been discovered within less than 50 miles of St. Genevieve which already yield annually to the value of upwards of 40,000 dollars.

Rivers.] St. Peter is the first branch of the Missisippi worthy of notice below the falls of St. Anthony. It comes from the west, and is a considerable river. Mangona is a branch from the west, which enters the Missisippi 250 leagues below the falls; it is 150 leagues in length. The Missouri has a course of 800 leagues, and mingles its waters with the Missisippi 300 leagues below St. Anthony's falls. The Canzas, one of its branches, is in length 150 leagues. The St. Francis is a considerable branch, which falls into the Missisippi, more than 30 leagues above the Arcansas: this last stream has its mouth 200 leagues above New-Orleans. Its source is in the mountain of Santa Fe in New-Mexico; its course is first a little north for 100 leagues; it then turns south-east; its length is about 300 leagues.

The Ouachitta river was explored by Dr. Hunter in company with Mr. Dunbar in the autumn of 1803 and beginning of 1804. "He found a great variety of soil and situation, sometimes a low flat country, whose whole surface is overflown by the river in the wet season, sometimes high and elegant, and at others broken, and rolling; but generally fertile and capable of the highest cultivation. He ascended the river about 500 miles, and found it uniformly gentle and beautiful; the velocity of the current not being more than half a mile an hour, from 80 to 100 yards in width, and capable of being navigated with boats, with but few obstructions, which are easily removed as high as the Little Missouri, a distance of 450 miles. The doctor, who is a chymist and mineralogist, found few objects worth notice. Iron could not be found in sufficient quantity to justify the erecting a furnace, and no other mineral of sufficient consequence to be named. Coal was found at some places, but not in abundance, and of a very inferior quality. The country abounds in salt springs, some of which are of equal strength with the water of the ocean. He visited the famous medicinal, or hot springs of Ouachitta, and found them amongst the greatest natural curiosities in the country. They issue from a hill or mountain, of upwards of 200 feet in height, and near 100 from its base; and on immersing the thermometer, it rose in some to 130 and in others to 150 degrees, Farenheit; the surface of the ground for some distance round, is so warm, as to be felt by the feet in walking over it, and snow melts on it immediately as it

falls. The doctor is of opinion that they possess extraordinary medical virtues."

Cultivation of Sugar.] The sugar cane may be cultivated between the river Ibberville and the city, on both sides of the river, and as far back as the swamps. Below the city, however, the lands decline so rapidly, that beyond 15 miles the soil is not well adapted to it. Above the Ibberville the cane would be affected by the cold, and its produce would therefore be uncertain. Within these limits the best planters admit that one quarter of the cultivated lands of any considerable plantation may be planted in cane, one quarter left in pasture, and the remaining half employed for provisions, &c. and a reserve for a change of crops. One Parisian Arpent of 180 feet square may be expected to produce on an average, 1200 weight of sugar, and 50 gallons of rum. From the above data, admitting that both sides of the river are planted for 90 miles in extent, and about $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile in depth, it will result, that the annual products may amount in round numbers, to 25,000 hogsheads of sugar, with 12,000 puncheons of rum. Taking $\frac{1}{3}$ instead of $\frac{1}{4}$ of the lands fit for sugar, it isthought the produce of the whole would be 50,000, instead of 25,000 hogsheads of sugar. The following quantities of sugar, brown, clayed and refined, have been imported into the United States from Louisiana and the Floridas, viz.

In 1799	773,542 *lb.*
1800	1,560,865
1801	967,619
1802	1,576,933

[*Jefferson.*]

"From Point Coupee down to the Gulf of Mexico, the sugar cane answers at present better than any other article; and sugar has within a few years past become the staple commodity of that part of the Missisippi. Below New-Orleans are 14, and above 64 sugar plantations, averaging annually about 75,000lbs. of sugar, beside a proportionable quantity of rum and molasses. It is estimated that at least 1000 sugar plantations may be made equal to those now used as such, which might turn out annually 75,000 hogsheads, of 1000 pounds weight each, beside a proportionable quantity of rum and molasses." [*Sibley.*]

"*Imports and Exports.*] The productions of Louisiana are, sugar, cotton, indigo, rice, furs and peltry, lumber, tar pitch, lead, flour, horses, and cattle. Population alone is wanting to multiply them to an astonishing degree. The soil is fertile, the climate salubrious, and the means of communication between most parts of the province certain, and by water. The following has been received as a sketch of the present exports of Louisiana, viz.

	Dollars.	
20,000 bales of cotton, of 3cwt. each, at 20 cts. per lb.	1,344,000	increasing.
4500 casks of sugar, 10cwt. each, at 6 cents per lb.	302,400	ditto.
800 do. molasses, 100 galls. each	32,000	ditto.
Indigo	100,000	diminishing rapidly.

Peltry	200,000	
Lumber	80,000	
Lead, corn, horses and cattle		uncertain
All other articles, suppose	100,000	
	2,158,000	

According to official returns in the Treasury of the United States, there were imported into our territory from Louisiana and the Floridas, merchandize to the following amounts, in the several years prefixed.

	Dollars.
In 1799 to the value of	507,132
1800	904,322
1801	956,635
1802	1,006,214

According to the same authority, which makes the total of the exports to amount to 2,158,000 dollars, the imports in merchandize, plantation utensils, slaves, &c. amount to two and a half millions, the difference being made up by the money introduced by the government, to pay the expenses of governing and protecting the colony. According to the returns in the Treasury of the United States, exports have been made to Louisiana and the Floridas, to the following amount in the years prefixed.

In 1799 to the value of

3,056,268	in foreign articles.
447,824	in domestick do.
Dollars, 3,504,092	

In 1800

1,795,127	in foreign articles.
240,662	in domestick do.
Dollars, 2,035,789	

In 1801

1,770,794	in foreign articles.
137,204	in domestick do.
Dollars, 1,907,998	

In 1802

1,054,600	in foreign articles.
170,110	in domestick do.
Dollars, 1,224,710	

From 1st January to 30th September, 1804, the exports from New-Orleans amounted to 1,600,362 dollars.

It is to be observed that if the total of the imports and exports into and from these provinces (of which the two Floridas are but a very unimportant part, with respect to both) be as above supposed, viz.

Imports	2,500,000 dollars.
Exports	2,158,000
Making together,	4,658,000 ;

the duty of six per cent. ought alone to produce the gross sum of 279,480 dolls. and that the difference between that sum and its actual net produce, arises partly from the imperfect tariff by which the value of merchandize is ascertained, but principally from the smuggling, which is openly countenanced by most of the revenue officers." [*Jefferson.*]

"*Manufactures.*] There are but few domestick manufactures. The Acadians manufacture a little cotton into quilts and cottonades; and in the remote parts of the province, the poorer planters spin and weave some negro cloths of cotton and wool mixed. There is one machine for spinning cotton in the parish of Ibberville, and another in the Opelousas; but they do little or nothing. In the city, besides the trades which are absolutely necessary, there is a considerable manufacture of cordage, and some small ones of shot and hair powder. There are likewise in and within a few leagues of the town 12 distilleries for making taffia, which are said to distil annually a very considerable quantity; and 1 sugar refinery, said to make about 200,000 lbs. of loaf sugar." [*ibid.*]

"*Navigation employed in the trade of the province.*] In the year 1802, there entered the Missisippi 268 vessels of all descriptions, 18 of which were publick armed vessels, and the remainder merchantmen, as follow, viz.

	American.	Spanish.	French.
Ships	48	14	
Brigs	63	17	1
Polacres		4	
Schooners	50	61	
Sloops	9	1	
	170	97	1

Of the number of American vessels, 23 ships, 25 brigs, 19 schooners, and 5 sloops came in ballast, the remainder were wholly, or in part laden. Five Spanish ships and 7 schooners came in ballast. The united tonnage of all the shipping that entered the river, exclusive of the publick armed vessels, was 33,725 register tons. In the same year there sailed from the Missisippi 265 sail, viz.

	American.		Tons.	Spanish.		Tons.
Ships	40	1 in ballast	8972	18		3714
Brigs	58		7526	22	1 in ballast	1944
Schooners	51		4346	58		3747
Sloops	8		519	3	1 in ballast	108
Polacres	-		-	3	1 in ballast	240
	158		21,383	104		9753

	French.	Tons.
Schooners	3	105

	Total.	Tons.
Americans	158	21,383
Spanish	104	9753
French	3	105
Grand total,	265	31,241.

The tonnage of the vessels which went away in ballast, and that of the publick armed ships, are not included in the foregoing account; these latter carried away masts, yards, spars, pitch, tar, &c. at least 1000 tons. In the first 6 months of the present year, there entered the Missisippi 173 sail, of all nations, 4 of which were publick armed vessels, viz. 2 French and 2 Spanish, whose tonnage is not enumerated.

	American	Tons.	Spanish.	Tons.	French.	Tons.
Ships,	23	5396	14	3080	5	1002
Brigs,	44	5701	20	2173	8	878
Polacres,			3	480	2	436
Sch'rs,	22	1899	18	1187	7	483
Sloops,	4	278	3	167		
Total,	93	13,264	58	7087	22	2804

Total of Ships.		Total of Tons.
American,	93	13,264
Spanish,	58	7087
French,	22	2804
Grand Total,	173	22,155

In the same six months there sailed from the Missisippi 156 vessels, viz.

	American.	Spanish.	French.
Ships,	21	18	2
Brigs,	28	3	1
Polacres,		4	
Schooners,	17	26	5
Sloops,	2	1	
	68	80	8

"*Learning.*] There are no colleges, and but one publick school, which is at New-Orleans. The masters of this are paid by the king. They teach the Spanish language only. There are a few private schools for children. Not more than half of the inhabitants are supposed to be able to read and write, of whom not more than 200 perhaps are able to do it well. In general the learning of the inhabitants does not extend beyond those two arts; though they seem to be endowed with a good natural genius, and an uncommon facility of learning whatever they undertake," [*ibid.*]

The Church.] The clergy consists of a bishop, who does not reside in the province, and whose salary of 4000 dollars is charged on the revenue of certain bishropricks in Mexico and Cuba; 2 canons having each a salary of 600 dollars, and 25 curates, 5 for the city of New-Orleans, and 20 for as many country parishes, who receive each from 360 to 480 dollars a year. Those salaries, except that of the bishop, together with an allowance for sacristans and chapel expenses, are paid by the treasury at New-Orleans, and amount annually to 13,000 dollars. There is also at that place a convent of Ursulines, to which is attached about 1000 acres of land, rented out in three plantations. The nuns are now in number not more than 10 or 12, and are all French. There were formerly about the same

number of Spanish ladies belonging to the order; but they retired to Havanna during the period when it was expected that the province would be transferred to France. The remaining nuns receive young ladies as boarders and instruct them in reading, writing, and needle work. They have always acted with great propriety, and are generally respected and beloved throughout the province. With the assistance of an annual allowance of 600 dollars from the treasury, they always support and educate twelve female orphans." [*Jeff.*]

Fortifications.] St. Louis has a lieutenant colonel to command in it, and but few troops. Baton Rouge is an ill constructed fort, and has about 50 men. In describing the canal of Carondelet the small fort of St. Jean has been mentioned, as has the block house at the Balize, in its proper place. The fortifications of New-Orleans, noticed before, consist of five ill constructed redoubts, with a covered way, palisade and ditch. The whole is going fast to decay, and it is supposed they would be of but little service, in case of an attack. Though the powder magazine is on the opposite side of the river, there is no sufficient provision made for its removal to the city, in case of need. The fort of Plaquemines, which is about 12 or 13 leagues from the sea, is an ill constructed, irregular brick work, on the eastern side of the Missisippi, with a ditch in front of the river, and protected on the lower side by a deep creek, flowing from the river to the sea. It is, however, imperfectly closed behind, and almost without defence there; too much reliance having been placed on the swampiness of the ground, which hardens daily. It might be taken, perhaps, by escalade, without difficulty. It is in a degree ruinous. The principal front is meant to defend the approach from the sea, and can oppose, at most, but eight heavy guns. It is built at a turn in the river, where ships in general must anchor, as the wind which brings them up so far is contrary in the next reach which they mostly work through; and they would therefore be exposed to the fire of the fort. On the opposite bank are the ruins of a small closed redoubt, called Fort Bourbon, usually garrisoned by a serjeant's command. Its fire was intended to flank that of the Fort of Plaquemines, and prevent shipping and craft from ascending or descending on that side. When a vessel appears, a signal is made on one side, and answered on the other. Should she attempt to pass, without sending a boat on shore, she would be immediately fired upon.

Indians.] The Indian nations within the limits of Louisiana are as far known as follows, and consist of the numbers hereafter specified. On the eastern bank of the Missisippi, about 25 leagues above Orleans, the remains of the nation of Houmas or Red Men, which do not exceed 60 persons. There are no other Indians settled on this side of the river either in Louisiana or West-Florida, though they are at times frequented by parties of wandering Choctaws. On the west side of the Missisippi are the remains of the Tounicas settled near, and above Point Coupee on the river, consisting of 50 or 60 persons." [*Jefferson.*]

"In the Atacapas. On the lower parts of Bayou Teche at about 11 or 12 leagues from the sea, are two villages of Chitimachas, consisting of about 100 souls. The Atacapas, properly so called, dispersed throughout the district, and chiefly on the Bayou or creek of Vermill-

ion, about 100 souls. Wanderers of the tribes of Biloxes and Choctaws on Bayou Crocodile, which empties into the Teche, about 50 souls." [*ibid.*]

"In the Opelousas to the N. W. of Atacapas. Two villages of Alibamas in the centre of the district, near the church, consisting of 100 persons. Conchates, dispersed through the country as far west as the river Sabinas and its neighbourhood, about 350 persons." [*ibid.*]

"On the River Rouge. At Avoyelles, 19 leagues from the Missisippi, is a village of the Biloni nation, and another on the lake of the Avoyelles, the whole about 60 souls. At the Rapide, 26 leagues from the Missisippi, is a village of Choctaws of 100 souls, and another of Biloxes, about 2 leagues from it, of about 100 more: about 8 or 9 leagues higher up the Red River is a village of about 50 souls. All these are occasionally employed by the settlers in their neighbourhood as boatmen. About 80 leagues above Natchitoches on the Red River, is the nation of the Cadoquies, called by abbreviation Cados; they can raise from 3 to 400 warriors, are the friends of the whites, and are esteemed the bravest and most generous of all the nations in this vast country; they are rapidly decreasing, owing to intemperance and the numbers annually destroyed by the Osages and Choctaws. There are, beside the foregoing, at least 4 or 500 families of Choctaws, who are dispersed on the west side of the Missisippi, on the Ouacheta and Red rivers, as far west as Natchitoches, and the whole nation would have emigrated across the Missisippi had it not been for the opposition of the Spaniards and the Indians on that side who had suffered by their aggressions." [*ibid.*]

"On the River Arkansas, &c. Between the Red River and the Arkansas there are but a few Indians the remains of tribes almost extinct. On this last river is the nation of the same name, consisting of about 260 warriors; they are brave yet peaceable and well disposed, and have always been attached to the French, and espoused their cause in their wars with the Chickasaws, whom they have always resisted with success. They live in three villages, the first at 18 leagues from the Missisippi on the Arkansas river, and the others at 3 and 6 leagues from the first. A scarcity of game on the eastern side of the Missisippi has lately induced a number of Cherokees, Choctaws, Chickasaws, &c. to frequent the neighbourhood of Arkansas, where game is still in abundance; they have contracted marriages with the Arkansas, and seem inclined to make a permanent settlement and incorporate themselves with that nation. The number is unknown, but is every day considerably increasing. On the river St. Francis, in the neighbourhood of New-Madrid, Cape Girardeau, Riviere a la Pomme, and the environs, are settled a number of vagabonds, emigrants from the Delawares, Shawanese, Miamis, Chickasaws, Cherokees, Piorias, and supposed to consist in all of 500 families; they are at times troublesome to the boats descending the river, and have even plundered some of them and committed a few murders. They are attached to liquor, seldom remain long in any place, many of them speak English, all understand it, and there are some who even read and write it. At St. Genevieve in the settlement among the whites are about 30 Piorias, Kaskaskias, and Illinois, who seldom hunt for fear of the other In-

dians; they are the remains of a nation, which, 50 years ago, could bring into the field 1200 warriors." [*ibid.*]

"On the Missouri. On the Missouri and its waters, are many numerous nations, the best known of which are; The Osages, situated on the river of the same name on the right bank of the Missouri, at about 80 leagues from its confluence with it; they consist of 1000 warriors, who live in two settlements at no great distance from each other. They are of a gigantick stature and well proportioned, are enemies of the whites and of all other Indian nations, and commit depredations from the Illinois to the Arkansas. The trade of this nation is said to be under an exclusive grant. They are a cruel and ferocious race, and are hated and feared by all the other Indians. The confluence of the Osage river with the Missouri is about 8 leagues from the Missisippi. Sixty leagues higher up the Missouri, and on the same bank, is the river Kanzas, and on it the nation of the same name, but at about 70 or 80 leagues from its mouth. It consists of about 250 warriors, who are as fierce and cruel as the Osages, and often molest and ill treat those who go to trade among them. Sixty leagues above the river Kanzas, and at about 200 from the mouth of the Missouri, still on its right bank, is the Riviere Platte, or Shallow river, remarkable for its quicksands and bad navigation; and near its confluence with the Missouri dwells the nation of Octolactos, commonly called Otos, consisting of about 200 warriors, among whom are 25 or 30 of the nation of Missouri, who took refuge among them about 25 years since. Forty leagues up the river Platte you come to the nation of the Panis, composed of about 700 warriors in 4 neighbouring villages; they hunt but little, and are ill provided with fire arms; they often make war on the Spaniards in the neighbourhood of Santa Fe, from which they are not far distant. At 300 leagues from the Missisippi and 100 from the river Platte on the same banks, are situated the villages of the Mahas. They consisted in 1799, of 500 warriors, but are said to have been almost cut off last year by the small-pox. At 50 leagues above the Mahas, and on the left bank of the Missouri, dwell the Poncas, to the number of 250 warriors, possessing in common with the Mahas, their language, ferocity, and vices. Their trade has never been of much value, and those engaged in it are exposed to pillage and ill treatment. At the distance of 450 leagues from the Missisippi, and on the right bank of the Missouri, dwell the Aricaras, to the number of 700 warriors, and 60 leagues above them, the Mandane nation, consisting of about 700 warriors likewise. These two last nations are well disposed to the whites, but have been the victims of the Sioux, or Mandowessies, who being themselves well provided with fire arms, have taken advantage of the defenceless state of the others, and have on all occasions murdered them without mercy. No discoveries on the Missouri, beyond the Mandane nation, have been accurately detailed, though the traders have been informed, that many navigable rivers discharge their waters into it, above it, and that there are many numerous nations settled on them. The Sioux, or Mandowessies, who frequent the country between the N. bank of the Missouri and Missisippi, are a great impediment to trade and navigation. They endeavour to prevent all

communications with the nations dwelling high up the Missouri, to deprive them of ammunition and arms, and thus keep them subservient to themselves. In the winter they are chiefly on the banks of the Missouri, and massacre all who fall into their hands. There are a number of nations at a distance from the banks of the Missouri, to the N. and S. concerning whom but little information has been received. Returning to the Missisippi and ascending it from the Missouri, about 75 leagues above the mouth of the latter, the river Moingona or Riviere de Moine enters the Missisippi on the west side, and on it are situated the Ayoas, a nation originally from the Missouri, speaking the language of the Otachatas: it consisted of 200 warriors before the small-pox lately raged among them. The Saes and Renards dwell on the Missisippi, about 300 leagues above St. Louis, and frequently trade with it; they live together, and consisted of 500 warriors; their chief trade is with Michilimakinack, and they have always been peaceable and friendly. The other nations on the Missisippi, higher up, are but little known to us. The Sac and Fox nations of Indians have ceded to the United States a valuable country, with a front of 600 miles on the Missisippi. It contains 80,000 square miles, and is equal to 51,200,000 acres. The treaty ceding this territory, was signed at St. Louis, the 3d of Nov. The nations of the Missouri, though cruel, treacherous, and insolent, may doubtless be kept in order by the United States, if proper regulations are adopted with respect to them. It is said that no treaties have been entered into by Spain with the Indian nations westward of the Missisippi, and that its treaties with the Creeks, Choctaws, &c. are in effect superceded by our treaty with that power of the 27th October, 1795." [*ibid.*]

History.] This country was first discovered by Ferdinand de Soto, in 1541; it was afterwards visited by Col. Wood, in 1654; by Capt. Bolt, in 1670; and in 1682, by Mon. de la Salle, from Canada, who was the first who traversed the river Missisippi. [*Hutchins.*] La Salle was of Norman extract, an inhabitant of New-France, a pupil and disciple of the Jesuits, and a bold enterprizing character. In 1683, he repaired to France, where he made such representations to the court, of his discoveries, as induced them to furnish him with four small vessels, in which he embarked, with a little colony of about 170 men, for the mouths of the Missisippi. By mistake, they passed the place of destination, and landed Feb. 1685, in the Bay of St. Bernard, about 300 miles west of the mouths of the Missisippi. This little colony, "most of whom were very corrupt," were badly provided with provisions and ammunition, most of them being swallowed up in the waves, through the perfidy of the sea officers intrusted with the landing of them; and after encountering many hardships, La Salle was murdered by some of his own men, and the whole colony miserably perished in various ways, except seven, who penetrated through the country to Canada. [*Raynal.*] Thus ended the first European attempt to settle Louisiana. In 1699, Mon. Ibberville of Canada, a brave naval officer, having obtained the patronage of the French court, sailed from Rochfort for the Missisippi, with two ships, and a number of men, and laid the foundation of the first French colony on the Missisippi. The country now for the first

time, was called Louisiana.* Two years after a new recruit of settlers arrived; but the unfavourable situation in which they were planted, the death of Ibberville, in 1706,† and the war in which France was at this time engaged, contributed to reduce the colony to great wretchedness; and in 1712 had diminished their number to twenty-eight families. At this period Crozat, a merchant of immense fortune, petitioned for and obtained the exclusive trade of Louisiana. His plans were patriotick and extensive, but he failed in carrying them into effect; and in 1717, he resigned his charter to a company formed by that famous projector, John Law. The most extravagant accounts of this country were now industriously circulated through various parts of Europe; and "the Missisippi became the centre of all men's wishes, hopes and speculations." In the years 1718 and 1719, while this frenzy prevailed, a numerous colony of labourers collected from France, Germany and Switzerland, and allured by the most flattering promises and expectations, were conveyed to Louisiana, and settled in a district called *Biloxi*, on the island of Orleans, opposite to and about 12 miles from Ship Island, a "situation the most barren, unhealthy and inconvenient of any on the coast," where these unfortunate adventurers died by hundreds, through want and vexation. The miserable fate of this colony ruined the reputation of Louisiana; and this enchanting country was now execrated, and its very name for a while became a reproach. The Missisippi, was the terror of freemen. No recruits were to be found to send thither, but such as were taken from prisons and houses of ill fame, and of course it became the receptacle of the lowest and most profligate persons in the kingdom. In this state the colony languished, till 1731, when the company, at the expense of 1,450,000 livres, purchased the favour of relinquishing their concerns into the hands of government. [*Raynal.*] The boundaries of Louisiana, as granted to Crozat, were north by the Illinois river and Lake, [*Hutchins*] or by Canada and unknown lands. [*Raynal.*] East by Carolina and Florida; south by the Gulf of Mexico; west by New-Mexico. Its length was not ascertained; its mean breadth was estimated at about 600 miles. [*Raynal.*] By the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, the northern boundary of Louisiana was extended to an imaginary line drawn from a promontory in New-Britain, in N. lat. 58° 30′ S. W. through lake Misgosink, or Mistasim, till it strike the 49th degree of N. lat. All the country south of this line, as far as the river St. Lawrence, was annexed to Louisiana; all north of it was confirmed to Great-Britain. [*Hutchins.*] And yet Danville, in his map of Louisiana, published in 1752, limits it to lat. 32° 10′ N. By what authority is not known. [*Pinkerton.*] The French, for ought that appears, remained in quiet possession of this extensive country, except frequent contests with the Indians, till 1762. The Spaniards of New-Mexico indeed, in 1720, jealous of their active neighbours, formed a scheme of establishing a large colony on the Missouri, far beyond the limits which they had been wont to prescribe for themselves, for the purpose of reducing the limits, and overawing the French colonists. Accordingly, nume-

* Raynal.

† Du Pratz says 1701.

rous caravans, who were to constitute this colony, proceeded from St. Fe, and directed their march towards the country of the Osage Indians, with design to engage this nation, the mortal enemies of the Missouris, to join them in conquering the country of the latter, which they resolved to occupy. The Spaniards missed their way, and went directly to the nation whose ruin they meditated; and ignorant of their mistake, communicated their design without reserve. The Missouri chief, who, by this singular mistake, became acquainted with the danger which threatened him and his people, concealed his feelings, and informed the Spaniards that he would readily assist in accomplishing their plan, and requested 48 hours to assemble his warriors. In the mean time, the unsuspecting Spaniards were amused with sports, till 2000 warriors had collected with their arms, when they fell upon the Spaniards while asleep, and slew every soul, except the chaplain, who owed his preservation to the singularity of his dress. [*Raynal.*]

The Natchez tribe of Indians proved for a time a formidable enemy to the colony; but in the year 1731, the whole tribe was nearly extirpated. In 1736, and again in 1740, the colonists were engaged in bloody wars with the Chickasaw Indians, in the former of which, the French were defeated; the latter terminated in peace, which has not since been interrupted. The colonists had struggled through many difficulties, and overcome many obstacles in the way of their prosperity, and their prospects were now brightening. The peltry trade with the Indians, and their commerce with the West-Indies were increasing. Two hundred Acadian families had already planted themselves on the banks of the Missisippi, and more were preparing to follow them. As many as 12 or 1500 Canadians were on their way to settle in Louisiana, and considerable accessions of inhabitants from other places, were expected. Such was the state of this colony, when, in April 1764, the French court announced to the inhabitants, that in Nov. 1762, Louisiana, embracing New-Orleans, and the whole territory W. of the Missisippi, had been ceded to Spain by a secret treaty. This measure was severely and justly censured, not only as impolitick, but as an offence against morality. The colonists, without their knowledge or consent, were given away to a foreign power. They did not submit to this unjust measure without manly opposition, so that complete possession of the country was not obtained by Spain, till the 17th of August, 1769. The day following, such of the citizens as chose, took the oaths of allegiance to the king of Spain. "Every thing was now completed but revenge. Victims were required. Twelve were selected from among the most distinguished in the army, the magistracy and trade. Six of these generous men atoned with their blood, for the consideration they enjoyed. The others, perhaps more unfortunate, were sent to languish out their lives in the dungeons of the Havannah; and this horrible tragedy was ordered by the Spanish ministry, while the French ministry shewed no indignation!" [*Raynal.*] By the treaty of peace in 1763, Canada with the whole territory belonging to France, eastward of the middle of the Missisippi to the Ibberville, thence through the middle of that river to the lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain to the

Gulf of Mexico, was ceded to Great-Britain. [See *Treaty.*] By this treaty the boundaries of the British provinces were extended southward to the Gulf of Mexico, and westward to the Missisippi, the navigation of which to its mouth was to be free to both nations, and Louisiana was limited N. by Canada, and E. by the Missisippi, excepting that it included the island of New-Orleans, on its E. bank. This state of things remained till the American revolutionary war, during which, Spain, in 1779, 1780, and 1781, took from Great-Britain, the two Floridas; the United States, according to their present limits, became an independent government, leaving to Great-Britain, of all her American provinces, those only which lie N. and E. of the United States. All these changes were sanctioned and confirmed by the treaty of 1783. From that period, these respective proportions of North-America remained without any change of proprietors, till the treaty of St. Ildefonso, of Oct. 1, 1800. By this treaty Spain "*promises and engages on her part, to cede to the French Republick, six months after the full and entire execution of the conditions and stipulations therein contained relative to the Duke of Parma, the colony or province of Louisiana, with the same extent that it actually has in the hands of Spain, that it had when France possessed it, and such as it should be after the treaties subsequently entered into between Spain and other states.*" "This treaty was confirmed and enforced by that of Madrid, of the 21st of March, 1801. From France it passed to the United States by the treaty of the 30th of April, 1803, as abovementioned, with a reference to the above clause as descriptive of the limits ceded." [*Jefferson.*]

The above recited clause from the treaty of Ildefonso, which makes a part of the treaty of the 30th of April, 1803, between the United States and the French Republick; contains our title to Louisiana. The validity of this title has been doubted. Events will soon decide this interesting question.* For the above title "the government of the United States engages to pay to the French government, in the manner specified in the following article, the sum of 60,000,000 of francs, independent of the sum which shall be fixed by another convention for the payment of the debts due by France to the citizens of the United States.

"For the payment of the sum of 60,000,000 francs, mentioned in the preceding article, the United States shall create a stock of 11,250,000 dollars, bearing an interest of six per centum per annum, payable half yearly in London, Amsterdam, or Paris, amounting by the half year to 337,500 dollars, according to the proportions which shall be determined by the French government to be paid at either place: The principal of the said stock to be reimbursed at the treasury of the United States, in annual payments of not less than 3,000,000 of dollars each; of which the first payment shall commence 15 years after the date of the exchange of ratifications; this stock shall be transferred to the government of France, or to such person or persons as shall be authorised to receive it, in *three months at most*, after the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, and after Louisiana shall be taken possession of in the name of the government of the United States."

* See the Debates in Congress, on this subject.

In December, 1803, Louisiana was, in due form, delivered by the commissaries of Spain to the commissioner of France, Mon. Laussat, who delivered it over to the commissioners of the United States, Gov. Clairborne and Gen. Wilkinson, on the 20th day of the same month. Gov. Clairborne being duly invested by the President with the powers heretofore exercised by the Governour and Intendant of Louisiana, assumed the government on the same day, and for the maintenance of law and order immediately issued his proclamation. The government has since undergone some important alterations, the territory has been divided into districts, and measures are taken to explore the country. On these particulars the author has not the papers, necessary to give minute and accurate information. This immense addition of territory to the United States, forms an important epoch in our history. What will be the effect upon the government, union, and happiness of our country, cannot be foreseen. Conjectures are various. Time will be continually unfolding the consequences of this great event. All must contemplate them with solicitude for the honour and welfare of the nation.

SPANISH DOMINIONS
IN NORTH-AMERICA.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.*

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Greatest length 600 } between { 25° and 31° N. lat.
Medium breadth 130 } { 5° and 17° W. lon. from Phila.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Georgia and the Missisippi Territory; east by the Atlantick ocean; south by the Gulf of Mexico; west, by the Missisippi and New-Orleans; lying in the form of an *L*.

Bays, Rivers, Lakes and Springs.] The Bay of Espiritu Sancto is situated on the west coast of the province of East-Florida, in 27 degrees of north latitude. It has a good harbour, but the land all about that coast is very low, and cannot be seen from a ship's deck when in seven fathoms water. Several low sandy islands and marshes covered with mangrove bushes, lie before the main land. Here is a great plenty of fish in the summer time, which may be caught with

* Whether West Florida makes a part of Louisiana, as ceded to the United States, is a question not yet decided. [*See Louisiana.*]

a seine, enough to load a ship, (if the climate would admit of curing them) even in a few days.

Here is stone proper for building on this coast. Also great plenty of deer, and some wild cattle. But the main land near the coast is in general sandy and barren, and is intermixed in many places with vallies capable of improvement for stock of all sorts. The bay and islands before the main land abound with fish and various sorts of wild fowl.

Among the rivers that fall into the Atlantick, St. John's and Indian rivers are the principal. St. John's river rises in or near a large swamp, in the heart of East-Florida, and pursues a northern course, in a broad navigable stream, which in several places spreads into broad bays or lakes. Lake George, which is only a dilatation of the river, is a beautiful piece of water, generally about 15 miles broad, and from 15 to 20 feet deep. It is ornamented with several charming islands, one of which is a mere orange grove, interspersed with magnolias and palm trees. Near Long Lake, which is four miles long and two wide, and communicates with St. John's river by a small creek, is a vast fountain of warm, or rather hot mineral water; issuing from a high bank on the river. It boils up with great force, forming immediately a vast circular bason, capacious enough for several shallops to ride in, and runs with rapidity into the river, three or four hundred yards distance. The water is perfectly clear; and the prodigious number and variety of fish in it, though many feet deep, appear as plainly as though lying on a table before your eyes. The water has a disagreeable taste, and smells like bilge water. This river enters the Atlantick, north of St. Augustine.

Indian river rises a short distance from the sea-coast, and runs from north to south, forming a kind of inland passage for many miles along the coast.

The Chattahocha, called also the Appachicola, is a fine large river, and navigable for boats and gallies, some distance north of the 31st deg. N. lat. For 40 miles the banks are low, and so frequently inundated, as to be unfit for cultivation: Above, the banks are more elevated, very rich, and almost the only lands cultivated by the Indians who reside on this river. This river, on whose banks lime-stone and iron ore are found, communicates by three mouths, with St. George's Sound, lat. 29° 44′ 38″ N. lon. 5° 38′ 35″ W. from Greenwich.

[*Ellicott.*]

Escambia, Mobile, Pascagoula and Pearl rivers, all rise in Georgia, and run southerly into the Gulf of Mexico. Of these we have already given a particular account.

Climate.] Very little different from that of Georgia.

Soil and Productions.] There are, in this country, a great variety of soils. The eastern part of it, near and about St. Augustine, is by far the least fruitful; yet even here two crops of Indian corn a year are produced. The banks of the rivers which water the Floridas, and the parts contiguous, are of a superior quality, and well adapted to the culture of rice and corn, while the more interior country, which is high and pleasant, abounds with wood of almost every kind; particularly white and red oak, live oak, laurel magnolia, pine, hickory, cypress, red and white cedar. The live oaks, though not tall, contain

a prodigious quantity of timber. The trunk is generally from 12 to 20 feet in circumference, and rises 10 or 12 feet from the earth, and then branches into four or five great limbs, which grow in nearly a horizontal direction, forming a gentle curve. "I have stepped," says Bartram,* "above 50 paces on a straight line, from the trunk of one of these trees to the extremity of the limbs." They are ever green, and the wood almost incorruptible. They bear a great quantity of small acorns, which is agreeable food when roasted, and from which the Indians extract a sweet oil, which they use in cooking hominy and rice.

The laurel magnolia is the most beautiful among the trees of the forest, and is usually 100 feet high, though some are much higher. The trunk is perfectly erect, rising in the form of a beautiful column, and supporting a head like an obtuse cone. The flowers are on the extremities of the branches. They are large, white, and expanded like a rose, and are the largest and most complete of any yet known; when fully expanded, they are from six to nine inches diameter, and have a most delicious fragrance. The cypress is the largest of the American trees. "I have seen trunks of these trees," says Bartram, "that would measure 8, 10 and 12 feet in diameter, for 40 and 50 feet straight shaft." The trunks make excellent shingles, boards, and other timber; and, when hollowed, make durable and convenient canoes. "When the planters fell these mighty trees, they raise a stage round them, as high as to reach above the buttresses; on this stage eight or ten negroes ascend with their axes, and fall to work round its trunk."

The intervals between the hilly parts of this country are extremely rich, and produce spontaneously the fruits and vegetables that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas. But this country is rendered valuable in a peculiar manner, by the extensive ranges for cattle.

Chief Towns.] St. Augustine, the capital of East Florida, is situated on the sea-coast, latitude 29° 45′—is of an oblong figure, and intersected by four streets, which cut each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and inclosed with a ditch. It is likewise defended by a castle, called Fort St. John, which is well appointed as to ordnance. The north and south breakers, at the entrance of the harbour, form two channels, whose bars have eight feet water.

The principal town in West-Florida is Pensacola. The harbour is on the N. shore of the Gulf of Mexico, 11 leagues E. of Port Lewis and Mobile, and 158 W. of the islands of Tortuga. It is a beautiful body of water, spacious, and safe from all winds, and has 4 fathoms water at its entrance, deepening gradually to 7 or 8. The bar lies in lat. 30° 15′† N. and long. 87° 14′ W. and admits of vessels drawing no more than 21 feet water. The town of Pensacola, the capital of West-Florida, lying along the beach of the bay, is of an oblong form, healthy and delightfully situated, and is about a mile in length, and a quarter of a mile in breadth. While in possession of the British it contained several hundred habitations; and many of the pub-

* Travels page 85.

† Lat. 30° 18′ N. long. 87° 17′ W. from Greenwich. [Ellicott.]

lick buildings and houses were spacious and elegant. The governour's palace is a large stone building, ornamented with a tower, built by the Spaniards. Since this place has been in possession of the Spaniards it has been on the decline. The exports from this town, consisting of skins, logwood, dying-stuff and silver dollars, amounted, while in the possession of the British, to £63,000 annually. The average value of imports, for three years, from Great-Britain, was £97,000. The town and fort of Pensacola surrendered to the arms of Spain, in the year 1781, and with them the whole province. The old fortifications stood on some sand hills back of the city, too distant to yield any substantial protection. The entrance into the bay is defended by a small fort on the west end of Rose's island, and a battery on the main land nearly opposite. This harbour, and others on this coast, are infested with worms, in such degree as to ruin vessels in two months, if care be not taken to prevent it. [*Hutchins & Ellicott.*] Escambia or Coenecuh river is the largest stream which falls into Pensacola Bay. It admits shallops some miles up, and boats upwards of 50 miles.

History.] The Floridas have experienced the vicissitudes of war, and frequently changed masters, belonging alternately to the French and Spaniards. West-Florida, as far east as Perdido river, was owned and occupied by the French; the remainder, and all East-Florida by the Spaniards, previous to their being ceded to the English at the peace of 1763. The English divided this country into East and West-Florida. They were ceded by Spain to the English at the peace of 1763. During the last war they were reduced by the arms of his Catholick Majesty, and guaranteed to the crown of Spain by the definitive treaty of 1783. The treaty between Spain and the United States, concluded 1796, opens to the latter the free navigation of the Missisippi, and settles the southern boundary of Georgia, agreeably to the treaty of 1783.

MEXICO.*

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	2,100	between	9° and 40° N. latitude.
Breadth	1,600		18° and 50° W. lon. from Philad.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by unknown regions; east by Louisiana, and the Gulf of Mexico; south, by the Isthmus of Darien, which separates it from Terra Firma in South-America; west by the Pacifick ocean.

Grand Divisions and Population.] This vast country is divided as follows:

* The description of this country has been improved from the valuable work of the Abbe Clavigero.

Grand Divisions.	Audiences.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Mexico, or New-Spain	Galicia,	7	Guadalaxara,
	Mexico,	9	Mexico, N. lat. 19° 26′
	Guatimala	6	Guatimala,*
New-Mexico	Apacheira,		St. Fe, N. lat. 36° 30′
	Sonora,		
	Coaguila,		
	New-Estremadura,		
	Texas,		
	New-Navarre,		
California, on the west, a peninsula.			St. Juan.

The population of Mexico, including the Floridas, and Louisiana, has been estimated, according to Pinkerton, at little more than seven millions; of whom the natives are 4,000,000. Pinkerton himself thinks, however, that the whole population of Spanish North-America does not exceed 6,000,000.

Rivers, Lakes and Fountains.] The land is in great part abrupt and mountainous, covered with thick woods, and watered with large rivers. Some of these run into the Gulf of Mexico, and others into the Pacifick ocean. Among the first, are Alvarado, Coatzacualco, and Tabasco. The Alvarado, has its principal source in the mountains of the Zapotecas, and, after making a circuit through the province of Mazaltan, and receiving other smaller rivers and streams, is discharged into the Gulf by three navigable mouths, at 30 miles distance from Vera Cruz. The river Coatzacualco, which is also navigable, empties into the ocean near the country of Onohualco. The river Tabasco begins its course from the mountains which separate the diocese of Chiapan from that of Guatimala, and afterwards that of Onohualco, where it runs into the sea.

Amongst the rivers which run into the Pacifick ocean, the principal is the river Guadalaxara, or great river. It takes its rise in the mountains of the Valley of Toloccan, waters the country of Tonollan, where at present stands the city of Guadalaxara, the capital of New-Galicia; and, after running a course of more than 600 miles, discharges itself into the ocean, in the latitude of 22 degrees.

There are several lakes, which do not less embellish the country than give convenience to the commerce of the people. The lakes of Nicaragua, Chapallan and Pazquaro, are among the largest. The lakes Tetzcuco and Chalco occupy a great part of the vale of Mexico, which is the finest country in New-Spain. The waters of Chalco are sweet, those of Tetzcuco are brackish. A canal unites them. The lower lake, Tetzcuco, was formerly as much as 20 miles long and 17 broad, and, lying at the bottom of the vale, is the reservoir of all the waters from the surrounding mountains. The city of Mexico stands on an island in this lake. These two lakes, whose circumference was not less than 90 miles, represented the figure of a camel. At present, the extent of these lakes is much less, for the Spaniards have diverted

* This city was swallowed up by an earthquake, June 7th, 1773, when 8,000 families instantly perished. New-Guatimala is well inhabited.

into new channels many rivers which formerly ran into them. All the water which is collected there is at first sweet, and becomes salt afterwards, from the nitrous bed of the lake, where it is received. M. De Bomare says, that the salt of the Mexican lake may proceed from the waters of the ocean in the north being filtered through the earth. But this is truly a gross error, because that lake is 180 miles distant from the ocean; besides, the bed of this lake is so elevated, that it has at least one mile of perpendicular height above the level of the sea. The lake Tocktlan makes a fine prospect, and its banks a most delightful dwelling.

In this country are interspersed many fountains, of different qualities. There are an infinity of nitrous, sulphureous, vitriolick, and aluminous mineral waters, some of which spring out so hot, that in a short time any kind of fruit or animal food is boiled in them. There are also petrifying waters, namely, those of Tehuacan, a city about 120 miles south-east from Mexico; those of the spring of Pucuaro, in the states of the Conte di Miravalles, in the kingdom of Michuacan, and that of a river in the province of the Queleni. With the waters of Pucuaro they make little white smooth stones, not displeasing to the taste; scrapings from which, taken in broth or in gruel made of Indian corn, are most powerful diaphoreticks, and are used with remarkable success, in various kinds of fevers. The citizens of Mexico, during the time of their kings, supplied themselves with water from the great spring of Chapoltepec, which was conveyed to the city by an aqueduct.

We might here describe the stupendous falls or cascades of several rivers, particularly that in the river Guadalaxara, 15 miles south of that city; and the famous *Ponti di Dio*, which is a natural bridge thrown over the deep river Atoyaque, 100 miles southeast of Mexico, over which coaches and carriages conveniently pass.

Climate.] The climate of this extensive country is various. The maritime parts are hot, and for the most part moist and unhealthy. Their heat which occasions sweat even in January, is owing to the perfect flatness of the coasts compared with the inland country; or from the mountains of sand that gather upon the shore. Lands which are very high, or very near to high mountains, which are perpetually covered with snow, are cold; there has been white frosts and ice, in the dog-days. All the other inland parts which are the most populous, enjoy a climate mild and benign, that they neither feel the rigour of winter, nor the heats of summer. No other fire than the sun's rays, is necessary to give warmth in winter; no other relief is wanted in the seasons of heat, than the shade; the same clothing which covers a man in the dog-days, defends him in January; and the animals sleep all the year under the open sky.

The mildness and agreeableness of the climate under the torrid zone is the effect of several natural causes, entirely unknown to the ancients, who believed it uninhabited; and not well understood by some moderns, by whom it is esteemed unfavourable to those who live in it. The purity of the atmosphere, the smaller obliquity of the solar rays, and the longer stay of this luminary upon the horizon in winter, in comparison with other regions farther removed from the equator,

concur to lessen the cold, and to prevent all that horror which disfigures the face of nature in other climates. During that season, a serene sky, and the natural delights of the country are enjoyed; whereas, under the frigid, and even for the most part under the temperate zones, the clouds rob man of the prospect of heaven, and the snow buries the beautiful productions of the earth. No less causes combine to temper the heat of summer. The plentiful showers which frequently water the earth after mid-day, from April or May to September or October; the high mountains continually loaded with snow, scattered here and there through the country; the cool winds which breathe from them in that season; and the shorter stay of the sun upon the horizon, compared with the circumstances of the temperate zone, transform the summer of those happy countries into a cool and cheerful spring.

But the agreeableness of the climate is counterbalanced by thunder storms, which are frequent in summer, and by earthquakes, which at all seasons are felt, although with less danger than terror.

Mountains.] The fire kindled in the bowels of the earth by the sulphureous and bituminous materials, has made vents for itself in some of the mountains, or volcanoes, from whence flames are often seen to issue, and ashes and smoke. There are five mountains in the districts of the Mexican empire, where, at different times, this dreadful phenomenon has been observed.

Pojauhtecal, called by the Spaniards Volcan de Orizaba, began to send forth smoke in the year 1545, and continued to do so for twenty years; but after that, for the space of more than two centuries, there has not been observed the smallest sign of burning. This celebrated mountain, which is of a conical figure, is indisputably the highest land in all Mexico; and, on account of its height, is the first land descried by seamen who are steering that way, at the distance of 50 leagues. It is higher than the Peak of Teneriffe. Its top is always covered with snow, and its border adorned with large cedars, pine, and other trees of valuable wood, which make the prospect of it every way beautiful. It is distant from the capital upwards of 90 miles to the eastward.

The Popocatepu and Tztaceihuatl, which lie near each other, 33 miles south-east from Mexico, are also of a surprising height. Popocatepu, for which they have substituted the name Volcan, has a mouth or vent more than half a mile wide, from which, in the time of the Mexican kings, it frequently emitted flames: and in the 16th century many times threw out great quantities of ashes upon the places adjacent; but since that time hardly any smoke has been observed. Tztaceihuatl, or Sciira Nevada, threw out also at some times smoke and ashes. Both mountains have tops always covered with snow, in such quantities, as to supply, with what precipitates from the neighbouring rocks, the cities of Mexico, Gilopoli, Cholula, and the adjoining places, to the distance of 40 miles from these mountains, where an incredible quantity is yearly consumed in cooling and congealing liquors.

The mountain Juruyo, situated in the valley of Urecho, is a great curiosity. Before the year 1760, there was nothing of it but a small hill, where there was a sugar plantation. But on the 29th of Septem-

ber, 1760, it burst with furious shocks, and entirely ruined the sugar-works, and the neighbouring village of Guacana; and from that time has continued to emit fire and burning rocks, which have formed themselves into three high mountains, whose circumference was nearly six miles in 1766; according to the account communicated by the governour of that province, who was an eye witness of the fact. The ashes at the eruption were forced to the almost incredible distance of 150 miles. In the city of Valadolid, 60 miles distant, it rained ashes in such abundance, that they were obliged to sweep the yards of their houses two or three times during the day.

Besides these, there are others also, which, though not burning mountains, are yet of great celebrity for their height.

Stones and Minerals.] The mountains of Mexico abound in ores of every kind of metal, and a great variety of fossils. The Mexicans found gold in various parts of their country. They gathered this precious metal chiefly in grains among the sand of the river. Silver was dug out of the mines of Ilachco, and others; but it was not so much prized by them as it is by other nations. Since the conquest so many silver mines have been discovered in that country, especially in the provinces which are to the north-west of the capital, it is quite impossible to enumerate them. Of copper they had two sorts; one hard, which they used instead of iron to make axes, hatchets, mattocks, and other instruments of war and agriculture; the other flexible, for making of basons, pots and other vessels. Of tin they made money, and lead was sold at market. There are also mines of iron, quicksilver, and in many places, mines of sulphur, alum, vitriol, cinnabar, ochre, and a white earth strongly resembling white lead. Of amber and asphaltum, or bitumen of Judea, there was and still is great abundance on both coasts; amber was used to set in gold for ornaments; asphaltum was employed in certain incense offerings.

With respect to precious stones, there were, and still are diamonds, though few in number; amethysts, cat's eyes, turquoises, cornelians, and some green stones resembling emeralds, and not much inferior to them. There are quarries of jasper, and marble of different colours in the mountains of Calpolalpan. The stone Tetzontli is generally of a dark red colour, pretty hard, porous and light; unites most firmly with lime and sand, and is therefore more in demand than any other for the buildings of the capital, where the foundation is marshy. There are, besides, entire mountains of loadstone, and among others one very considerable between Tcoiltylan and Chilapan, in the country of the Cohuixcas.

Productions.] However plentiful and rich the mineral kingdom of Mexico may be, the vegetable kingdom is still more various and abundant. The celebrated Dr. Hernandez, the Pliny of New-Spain, describes, in his natural history, about twelve hundred plants, natives of this country; but as his description is confined to medicinal plants, he has hardly comprized one half of what provident nature has produced there for the benefit of mankind. With regard to the other vegetables, some are esteemed for their flowers, some for their fruit, some for their leaves, some for their roots, some for their trunk or their wood, and others for their gum, resin, oil or juice. Many flowers,

which embellish the meads, and adorn the gardens of the Mexicans are worthy to be mentioned, (would our limits permit) either on account of the singular beauty of their colours, their exquisite fragrance, or the extraordinariness of their form.

The fruits which are original in Mexico, are the pine-apple, plums, dates, and a great variety of others. There are also many others that are not original in the country, viz. water-melons, apples, peaches, quinces, apricots, pears, pomegranates, figs, black cherries, walnuts, almonds, olives, chesnuts and grapes.

The cocoa-nut, vanilla, chia, great pepper, tomati, the pepper of Tabasco, and cotton, are very common with the Mexicans. Wheat, barley, peas, beans and rice, have been successfully cultivated in this country.

With respect to plants which yield profitable resins, gums, oils, or juices, the country of Mexico is singularly fertile. Of the elastick gum, the Mexicans make their foot balls, which, though heavy, rebound more than those filled with air.

Animals.] The animal kingdom of Mexico is not very well known. Of the quadrupeds, some are ancient, and some are modern. Those are called modern which were transported from the Canaries and Europe into that country in the sixteenth century. Such are horses, asses, bulls, sheep, goats, hogs, dogs and cats, which have all multiplied. Of the ancient quadrupeds, by which is meant those that from time immemorial have been in that country, some were common to both the continents of Europe and America, some peculiar to the new world, others natives only of the kingdom of Mexico. The ancient quadrupeds common to Mexico and the old continents are lions, tigers, wild cats, bears, wolves, foxes, the common stags and white stags, bucks, wild goats, badgers, pole cats, weazles, martins, squirrels, rabbits, hares, otters and rats. There are many other kinds of animals in this country, too numerous to mention.

Birds.] Their prodigious number, their variety, and many valuable qualities, have occasioned some authors to observe, that, as Africa is the country of beasts, so Mexico is the country of birds. It is said, there are two hundred species peculiar to that kingdom. There are a prodigious number of geese; at least twenty species of ducks; several kinds of herons; with vast numbers of swans, water rails, divers, king fishers, pelicans, and others. The multitude of ducks is sometimes so great, as quite to cover the fields, and to appear at a distance like flocks of sheep. The pelican is remarkable in assisting the sick or wounded of its own species, a circumstance which the Americans sometimes take advantage of, to procure fish without trouble. They take a live pelican, break his wing, and after tying him to a tree, conceal themselves in the neighbourhood; there they watch the coming of the other pelicans with their provisions, and as soon as they see these throw up the fish from their pouch, run and seize them, and after leaving a little for the captive bird, they carry off the rest.

In the other classes of birds, some are valuable on account of their flesh, some for their plumage, and some for their song; while others engage our attention by their extraordinary instinct, or some other re-

markable quality. Of birds, which afford a wholesome and agreeable food, there are more than seventy species. There are 35 species of Mexican birds, that are superlatively beautiful. The talking birds, or those which imitate the human voice, are to be found in equal abundance in this country; of these the parrot holds the first place.

Fish.] The fish, common to both oceans, are whales, dolphins, sword fish, saw fish, tiburones, manitis, mantas, porpoises, bonatas, cod, mullets, thornbacks, barbels, flying fish, shad, lobsters, soles, and many others, together with several species of tortoises, polypus, crabs, spunges, &c. The Mexican Gulf, beside those already mentioned, affords sturgeons, pike, congers, cuttle fish, anchovies, carp, eels, nautiluses, turbot, &c. In the Pacifick Ocean, beside those common to the two seas, there are salmon, tunnies, sea scorpions, herrings, and others. In the lakes and rivers are three or four kinds of white fish, carp, mullet, trout, barbels, eels, and many others.

Shells have been found in prodigious numbers, and of great variety, and some of them of extraordinary beauty, especially those of the Pacifick Ocean. Pearls also have been fished, at different times, along all the coasts of that ocean.

Government and Religion.] The civil government of Mexico is administered by tribunals, called audiences. In these courts the viceroy of the king of Spain presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power his Catholick Majesty has at his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The viceroy continues in office three years.

The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico. The priests, monks and nuns of all orders, make a fifth part of the white inhabitants, both here, and in other parts of Spanish America.

Chief Towns and Commerce.] Mexico is the oldest city in America of which we have any account. The Abbe Clavigero, who is who is our authority for the preceding account of this country, dates its foundation as far back as 1325. It is situated in the charming vale of Mexico, on several small islands, in lake Tetzcuco, in N. lat. 19° 26′, and 276° 34′ W. lon. from Ferro. This vale is surrounded with lofty and verdant mountains, and formerly contained no less than 40 eminent cities, besides villages and hamlets. The city is subject to frequent inundations, as is easily accounted for, from its local situation, the lake in which it stands being the reservoir of the waters flowing from the neighbouring mountains.

Concerning the ancient population of this city there are various opinions. The historians most to be relied on, say that it was nearly nine miles in circumference, and contained upwards of 60,000 houses, containing each from 4 to 10 inhabitants. Some historians reckon 120,000 and some 130,000 houses. By a late accurate enumeration, made by the magistrates and priests, it appears that the present number of inhabitants exceeds 200,000. We may form some idea of its populousness from the quantity of pulque* and tobacco which are

* *Pulque* is the usual wine or beer of the Mexicans made of the fermented juice of the maguei. This liquor will not keep but one day, and therefore what is made is daily consumed.

daily consumed in it, ascertained from the custom-house books, February 23, 1775. Every day upwards of 190,000 pounds of pulque are carried into the city, which is almost solely consumed by the Indians and mulattoes, who drink this beverage. The tax upon it amounts annually to about 280,000 crowns. The daily consumption of tobacco is reckoned at 1250 crowns.

The greatest curiosity in the city of Mexico is their floating gardens. When the Mexicans, about the year 1325, were subdued by the Colhuan and Tepanecan nations, and confined to the small islands in the lake, having no land to cultivate, they were taught by necessity to form moveable gardens, which floated on the lake. Their construction is very simple. They take willows and the roots of marsh plants, and other materials which are light, and twist them together, and so firmly unite them, as to form a sort of platform, which is capable of supporting the earth of the garden. Upon this foundation they lay the light bushes which float on the lake, and over them spread the mud and dirt which they draw up from the bottom of the lake. Their regular figure is quadrangular; their length and breadth various, but generally about eight rods long and three wide; and their elevation from the surface of the water is less than a foot. These were the first fields that the Mexicans owned after the foundation of Mexico; there they first cultivated the maize, great pepper and other plants necessary for their support. From the industry of the people, these fields soon became numerous. At present they cultivate flowers and every sort of garden herb upon them. Every day of the year, at sunrise, innumerable vessels or boats loaded with various kinds of flowers and herbs which are cultivated in these gardens, are seen arriving by the canal at the great market place of Mexico. All plants thrive in them surprizingly; the mud of the lake makes a very rich soil, which requires no water from the clouds. In the largest gardens there is commonly a little tree, and a little hut, to shelter the cultivator, and defend him from the rain or the sun. When the owner of a garden, or the *Chinampa*, as he is called, wishes to change his situation, to get out of a bad neighbourhood, or to come nearer to his family, he gets into his little boat, and, by his own strength alone, if the garden is small, or with the assistance of others, if it is large, conducts it wherever he pleases, with the little tree and hut upon it. That part of the island where these floating gardens are, is a place of delightful recreation, where the senses receive the highest possible gratification.

The buildings, which are of stone, are convenient, and the publick edifices, especially the churches, are magnificent, and the city has the appearance of immense wealth.

The trade of Mexico consists of three great branches, which extend over the whole world. It carries on a traffick with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, situated on the Gulf of Mexico, or North Sea; with the East-Indies, by Acapulco on the South Sea, 210 miles southwest of Mexico; and with South-America by the same port. These two sea ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are admirably well situated for the commercial purposes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former, that Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world; and

receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessaries, which Europe affords her. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war, as a convoy, and 14 large merchant ships, annually arrives about the beginning of November. Its cargo consists of almost every commodity and manufacture of Europe; and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little else except wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from the American commerce. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. Some time in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they sail to the Havannah, in the Isle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet, which carries on the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea-port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America and the East-Indies. About the month of December, the great galleon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, which make the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrive here. The cargoes of these ships (for the convoy, though in a clandestine manner, likewise carries goods) consist of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the East. At the same time, the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is computed to bring not less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver, and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchase of the galleon's cargoes. Several other ships, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, lasts thirty days. The galleon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with silver and such European goods as have been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great-Britain, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the flota, so the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permit the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galleon. Notwithstanding what has been said of Vera Cruz and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be considered as the centre of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reside, and the greatest part of the business is negociated. The East-India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, also pass through this city. Hither all the gold and silver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is deposited, and here are wrought all those utensils and ornaments in plate which are every year sent into Europe.

History.] The empire of Mexico was subdued by Cortes, in the year 1521. Montezuma was at that time emperor of Mexico. In the course of the war, he was treacherously taken by Cortes, and held as a prisoner. During the imprisonment of Montezuma, Cortes and his army had made repeated attacks on his subjects, but without success. Cortes was now determined, as his last resource, to try what effect the interposition of Montezuma might have to soothe or overawe his subjects. This unfortunate prince, at the mercy of the treacherous Spaniards, and reduced to the sad necessity of becoming the instrument of his own disgrace, and of the slavery of his subjects, advanced to the battlements in his royal robes, in all the pomp in which he used to appear on solemn occasions. At sight of their sovereign, whom they had long been accustomed to honour, and almost to revere as a god, the weapons dropped from their hands, every tongue was silent, all bowed their heads, and many prostrated themselves on the ground. Montezuma addressed them with every argument that could mitigate their rage, or persuade them from hostilities. When he ended his discourse, a sullen murmur of disapprobation ran through the crowd; to this succeeded reproaches and threats; and their fury rising in a moment, they violently poured in whole flights of arrows and vollies of stones upon their unhappy monarch; two of the arrows struck him in his body, which, with the blow of a stone on his temple, put an end to his life. Guatimozin succeeded Montezuma, and maintained a vigorous opposition against the assaults of Cortes. But he, like his predecessor, after a noble defence, was forced to submit. Previous to this, being aware of his impending fate, he had ordered that all his treasures should be thrown into the lake. While a prisoner, on suspicion of his having concealed his treasure, he was put to the torture, which was done by laying him on burning coals; but he bore whatever the refined cruelty of his tormentors could inflict, with the invincible fortitude of an American warrior. One of his chief favourites, his fellow sufferer, being overcome by the violence of the anguish, turned a dejected eye towards his master, which seemed to implore his permission to reveal all that he knew; but the high spirited prince darted on him a look of authority, mingled with scorn, and checked his weakness by asking, "Am I reposing on a bed of flowers?" Overawed by the reproach, he persevered in dutiful silence, and expired. Cortes, ashamed of a scene so horrid, rescued the royal victim from the hands of his torturers, and prolonged a life for new indignities and sufferings. Cortes died in Spain, in the year 1547, in the 62d year of his age. Envied by his contemporaries, and ill requited by the court which he served, he has been admired and celebrated by succeeding ages. By his own desire he was carried to Mexico, and buried there.

Cortes, the great conqueror of Mexico, discovered the extensive peninsula of California, in the year 1536, after enduring incredible hardships, and encountering dangers of almost every species. During a long period it continued to be so little frequented, that even its form was unknown, and in most maps it was represented as an island. Sir Francis Drake was the first who took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king or chief in the whole country.

SOUTH-AMERICA.

WE now enter upon the description of that part of the globe, where the human mind will be successively surprized with the sublime and astonishing works of nature; where rivers of amazing breadth flow through beautiful and widely extended plains, and where lofty mountains, whose summits are covered with eternal snow, intercept the course of the clouds, and hide their heads from the view of mortals. In some parts of this extensive region, nature hath bountifully bestowed her treasures, and given every thing necessary for the convenience and happiness of man. We have only to regret that a set of avaricious men have successively drenched with innocent blood these plains, which are so beautifully formed and enriched by the hand of nature; and that the rod of Spanish despotism has prevented the population of a country which might have supported millions of beings in affluence. This division of the continent extends from about 12 degrees N. lat. to 54 S. lat.; and yet further, if Terra del Fuego be included. The length being at least 66 degrees, or 4587 miles, the breadth 3316.

The original population of this large portion of the earth was in all probability from Asia. The first population of the two continents seems to be the same. There are in fact many striking resemblances between the languages of Peru, Chili, Brazil, and other parts of South-America, and the languages of Asia. The resemblance continuess still further north. The language of the Natchez is closely allied to the language of the Creeks; and the language of the Creeks is unquestionably Asiatick. They have several Japanese customs. [*Barton and Pinkerton.*]

Divisions.] South-America, like Africa, is an extensive peninsula, connected with North-America by the isthmus of Darien, and divided between Spain, Portugal, France, Holland and the Aborigines, as follows:

SPANISH DOMINIONS.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Terra Firma,	Panama and Carthagena
Peru,	Lima,
Chili,	St. Jago,
Paraguay,	Buennos Ayres.

PORTUGUESE.

Brazil,	St. Salvador.

FRENCH.

Cayenne,	Caen.

SOUTH AMERICA
NORTH AMERICA
NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
SOUTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
Equinoctial Line
Longitude West from Greenwich
Caracas
Margarita I.
Tobago
Trinidad
Cartagena
Santa Marta
Maracaibo
Coro
Puerto Cabello
La Guayra
Barcelona
Cumana
Orinoco R.
Amazon R.
Rio Negro
Rio Madeira
Rio Tapajos
Rio Xingu
Rio Tocantins
Rio Parnaiba
Rio Grande
Rio Francisco
Rio de la Plata
Buenos Ayres
Montevideo
Rio Janeiro
Cape Horn
Falkland Island
Magellan Strait
Staten Land
Cape Blanco
Cape St. Augustine
Cape St. Roque
Cape St. Thomas
Cape Corrientes
Cape Parina
Cape Pilares
Cape Virgins
Cape Vela
Cape Three Points
Cape Orange
Cape North
Cape Frio
Cape Horn
Bay of Panama
Bay of Buenaventura
Bay of Guayaquil
Bay of All Saints
Bay of Rio Janeiro
Gulf of Guayaquil
Gulf of Trinidad
Gulf of Darien
Gulf of Venezuela
Gulf of Paria
Gulf of Nicoya
Gulf of Fonseca
Gulf of Tehuantepec
Gulf of Mexico
Gulf of California
Gulf of Panama
Gulf of Guinea

DUTCH.

Guiana { Surinam, Demarara & Essequebo, Berbisch. — Parimaribo.

ABORIGINES.

Amazonia,
Patagonia.

Of these countries we shall treat in their order.*

SPANISH DOMINIONS
IN SOUTH-AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 1400, Breadth 700 } between { 60° and 82° W. longitude. the equator, and 12° N. latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by the Atlantick ocean, here called the North Sea; east by the same ocean and Surinam; south, by Amazonia and Peru; west by the Pacifick ocean.

It is divided into

	Chief Towns.
Terra Firma proper, or Darien,	Porto Bello, Panama.
Carthagena,	Carthagena.
St. Martha,	
Venezeula,	
Comana,	
Paria,	
New-Granada,	
Popayan,	Popayan.

Bays.] In the South Sea, the principal bays are those of Panama and St. Michael; in the North Sea are the bays of Porto Bello, Sino, Guiara, &c.

Rivers.] The principal rivers are the Darien, Chagre, Santa Maria, Conception and Oronoko. The peculiarities of this last mentioned river require a particular description.

It was Columbus, who, in 1498, first discovered the Oronoko, the borders of which have since been named Spanish Guinea. This great river takes its rise among the Cordeleras mountains, and is said to discharge itself into the ocean by forty openings, after it hath been in-

* For the best history of South-America and Mexico, the reader is referred to Robertson's History of America, and the Abbe Clavigero's History of Mexico.

creased, through an immense tract, by the afflux of a prodigious number of rivers more or less considerable. Such is its impetuosity that it stems the strongest tides, and preserves the freshness of its waters to the distance of twelve leagues from the mouth of that vast and and deep channel within which it is confined. Its rapidity, however, is not always the same, which is owing to a circumstance perhaps entirely peculiar. The Oronoko, which begins to swell in April, continues rising for five months, and during the sixth remains at its greatest height. From October it begins gradually to subside, till the month of March, throughout the whole of which it remains in the fixed state of its greatest diminution. These alternate changes are regular, and even invariable. Perhaps the rising of the waters of the Oronoko may depend entirely on the rainy season.

This river is not so easily navigated as might be presumed from its magnitude; its bed being in many places filled up with rocks; which oblige the navigator, at times, to carry both his boats and the merchandize they are laden with, by land round the obstruction.

Near the head of the Oronoko a tribe of Indians, the Guacias, are of remarkably small stature, very white and warlike. [*Humboldt.*]

Climate, Soil and Productions.] The climate here, especially in the northern parts, is extremely hot and sultry during the whole year. From the month of May to the end of November, the season called winter by the inhabitants, is almost a continual succession of thunder, rain and tempests; the clouds precipitating the rains with such impetuosity, that the low lands exhibit the appearance of an ocean. Great part of the country is of consequence almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholesome. The desert of Los Llanos, like the Sahara of Africa, is a prodigious tract of barrenness. For 2000 square leagues the level of the country does not differ 5 inches. No vegetation cheers the plain of sand; serpents and crocodiles are the only inhabitants the traveller meets for several days. The heat in the shade rises to 111 or 115°. [*Humboldt.*] The soil of this country is very different, the inland parts being extremely rich and fertile, and the coasts sandy and barren. It is impossible to view without admiration the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This country produces corn, sugar, tobacco, and fruits of all kinds; the most remarkable is that of the manzanillo tree. It bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains a most subtle poison. The bean of Carthagena is the fruit of a species of willow, about the bigness of a bean, and is an excellent remedy for the bite of the most venomous serpents, which are very frequent all over this country. Among the natural merchandize of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coast, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves are employed in fishing for these, and have arrived at a wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are sometimes, however, devoured by sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are crushed against the shelves of the rocks.

Chief Towns.] Carthagena is the principal sea port town in Terra Firma. It is situated on the Atlantick Ocean in N. lat. 10° 26′, and about three degrees west of the meridian of Philadelphia. The bay on which it stands is seven miles wide from north to south; abounds with a variety of good fish; and has a sufficient depth of water, with good anchorage, and so smooth that ships are no more agitated than on a river. The many shallows at its entrance, however, make the help of a good pilot necessary. The town and its suburbs are fortified in modern style. The streets are straight, broad and well paved. The houses are principally brick, and one story high. All houses have balconies and lattices of wood. This city is the residence of the governour of the province of Carthagena, and of a bishop, whose spiritual jurisdiction extends over the whole province. There is here also a court of inquisition, several convents and nunneries, a church, a chapel of ease, and a college of Jesuits. The city is well peopled with Indians, Europeans, Negroes and Creoles. The Europeans, who are not numerous, and the Creoles, manage the whole trade of the place; the other inhabitants are poor, and work hard for subsistence. The inhabitants are universally fond of chocolate and tobacco; and the most sober seldom fail of drinking a glass of brandy in the morning.

Panama is the capital of Terra Firma Proper, and is situated upon a capacious bay to which it gives its name, N. lat. 8° 57′, W. lon. 82°. It is the great receptacle of the vast quantities of gold and silver, with other rich merchandize, from all parts of Peru and Chili. Here they are lodged in store-houses, till the proper season arrives to transport them to Europe.

Porto Bello is situated close to the sea, on the declivity of a mountain which surrounds the whole harbour, N. lat. 9° 34′, W. lon. 81° 52′. The convenience and safety of this harbour is such, that Columbus, who first discovered it, gave it the name of Porto Bello, or the Fine Harbour.*

History.] This part of South-America was discovered by Columbus, in his third voyage to this continent. It was subdued and settled by the Spaniards about the year 1514, after destroying, with great inhumanity, several millions of the natives. This country was called Terra Firma, on account of its being the first part of the continent which was discovered, all the lands discovered previous to this being islands.

* A particular and interesting description of this place may be found in the American Gazetteer, published by the author, 1804.

PERU.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	1800	between	the Equator and 25° S. latitude.
Breadth	500	between	60° and 81° W. longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by Terra Firma; west by the Pacifick Ocean; south by Chili; and east by the mountains called the Andes.

Divisions.] Peru is divided into the following provinces:

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Quito,	Quito, Payta,
Lima,	Lima, latitude 12° 11′ S.
Los Charcos,	Potosi, Porco.

Rivers.] There are a number of rivers which rise in the Andes, but most of them run to the eastward. Among these are the Grande, Oronoko, Amazon and Plate. The Amazon rises in Peru, but directs its course eastward, and after running between 3 and 4,000 miles, falls into the Atlantick Ocean, under the equator. This river, like others between the tropicks, annually overflows its banks, at which time it is 150 miles wide at its mouth. It is supposed to be the largest river in the world, either with regard to the length of its course, the depth of its waters, or its astonishing breadth. There is one river in Peru, the waters of which are said to be as red as blood; but this is doubted by some. It is probable, however, that there may be qualities in the earth through which this river runs, which may tinge the waters, and give them some resemblance to blood.

Climate, Air and Soil.] From the situation of this country, which is within the torrid zone, it is natural to suppose that it would be almost uninhabitable; but the Andes mountains being on the one side, and the South Sea on the other, it is not so prodigiously hot as tropical countries in general are; and in some parts it is disagreeably cold. In one part, are mountains of a stupendous height and magnitude, having their summits covered with snow; on the other, volcanoes flaming within, while their summits, chasms and apertures are involved in ice. The plains are temperate, the beaches and vallies hot; and lastly, according to the disposition of the country, its high or low situation, we find all the variety of gradations of temperature between the two extremes of heat and cold. It is remarkable that in some places it never rains, which defect is supplied by a dew, that falls every night, and sufficiently refreshes the vegetable creation; but in Quito they have prodigious rains, attended by dreadful storms of thunder and lightning. In the inland parts of Peru, and by the banks of the rivers, the soil is usually very fertile; but along the sea-coast it is a barren sand.

Animal and Vegetable Productions.] Vast numbers of cattle were imported by the Spaniards into Peru, when they took possession of that country; these are now so amazingly increased, that

they run wild and are hunted like game. The most remarkable animals in this country are the Peruvian sheep, called the lamas and vicunnas. The lama, in several particulars, resembles the camel, as in the shape of the neck, head and some other parts; but has no bunch, is much smaller, and is cloven footed. Its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a venomous juice, that inflames that part on which it falls. The wool with which it is covered is of different colours, but generally brown. These animals are generally docile, so that the Indians use them as beasts of burden. Formerly they used to eat their flesh, and still continue to make that use of such as are past labour, esteeming it preferable to mutton. The vicunna resembles the lama in shape, but is much smaller, and its wool shorter and finer. The most remarkable birds found in Peru are the condors and hummers. The condor is prodigiously large and carnivorous, and very voracious, frequently seizing the lambs as they are feeding upon the heath. The hummer is a night bird, peculiar to the mountainous deserts of Peru. They are seldom seen, though frequently heard, both by their singing and a strange humming made in the air by the rapidity of their flight, which, when near, makes a noise like that of a rocket. The insects found in Peru are musquetoes in prodigious numbers, miguas and several others equally venomous; also a variety of beautiful butterflies. This country produces fruits peculiar to the climate, and most of those in Europe. The culture of maize, of pimento, and of cotton, which was found established there, has not been neglected; and that of wheat, barley, cassava, potatoes, sugar, and of the olive and vine is attended to. The goat has thriven very well; but the sheep have degenerated, and their wool is become extremely coarse.

Mines.] In the northern parts of Peru are several gold mines; but those of silver are found all over the country, particularly in the neighbourhood of Potosi. Nature never offered to the avidity of mankind, in any country on the globe, such rich mines as those of Potosi. These famous mines were accidentally discovered in the year 1545, in this manner; an Indian, named Hualpa, one day following some deer, which made directly up the hill of Potosi, came to a steep craggy part of the hill, and the better to enable him to climb up, laid hold of a shrub, which came up by the roots, and laid open a mass of silver ore. He for some time kept it a secret, but afterwards revealed it to his friend Guanca, who, because he would not discover to him the method of refining it, acquainted the Spaniard his master, named Valaroel, with the discovery. Valaroel registered the mine in 1545; and from that time till 1638 these mines of Potosi had yielded 395,619,000 pieces of eight, which is about 4,255,000 pieces a year. Potosi is about 20 or 25 leagues from the city of La Plata. The hill, and also the country for a considerable distance round, is quite barren and desert, and produces neither tree, plant nor herb, so that the inhabitants of Potosi, which is situated at the foot of the hill, on the south side, are obliged to procure all the necessaries of life from Peru. These mines begin to decrease, and others rise in reputation.

Manufactures, Trade and Cities.] We join these articles here, because of their intimate connexion; for, except in the cities we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spanish empire. Its situation, in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are very many magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city, though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and besides, it is found, that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, amounting to seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, and silver, and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The only thing that could justify these accounts, is the immense richness and extensive commerce of the inhabitants. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged, at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of; the fleet from Europe and the East-Indies land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in ware-houses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and the fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more perfect, not more than one of three thousand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable. This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as is usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants forever in its bosom, and immediately all was silent; but the same wave which destroyed the town, drove a little

boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself and was saved.

Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, lies in the mountainous country, at a distance from the sea, and has long been on the decline, but is yet a very considerable place. The inhabitants, three parts of whom are Indians, are very industrious in manufacturing baize, cotton and leather. They have also, both here and in Quito, a particular taste for painting; and their productions in this way, some of which have been admired in Italy, are dispersed all over South-America. Quito is next to Lima in populousness, if not superior to it. It is, like Cusco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool and flax, which supply the consumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

Inhabitants, Manners and Government.] It is impossible to ascertain with any degree of precision the number of inhabitants in Peru. The city of Lima is said to contain 54,000; Guagaquill, 20,000; Potosi, 25,000; La Pas, 20,000; and Cusco, 26,000. Among all the inhabitants of Peru, pride and laziness are said to be the most predominant passions. Avarice may likewise be attributed to some of them with much propriety.

The Indians and negroes are forbidden, under the severest penalties, to intermarry; for division between these two classes is the great instrument, in which the Spaniards trust for the preservation of the colonies. Peru is governed by a viceroy, who is absolute; but it being impossible for him to superintend the whole extent of his government, he delegates a part of his authority to the several audiences and courts, established at different places throughout his territories. At Lima there is a treasury court for receiving a fifth of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

Natural History.] There are certain waters in this country, which in their course turn into stone; and fountains of liquid matter, called coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by seamen for the same purpose. On the coasts of Guagaquill and Guatimala are found a certain species of snails, which yield the purple die, so celebrated by the ancients, and which the moderns have supposed to have been lost. The shell that contains them is fixed to rocks, watered by the sea. It is of the size of a large nut. Various methods are used to extract the purple matter from the animal. There is no colour that can be compared to this, either in lustre or permanence.

Under this head it may not be improper to make some observations upon that new substance, called the Platina, and which may be considered as an *eighth* metal. In its native state it is mixed with gold and iron, and this at first gave rise to a suspicion that it was nothing more than a combination of these two metals; but late experiments of chymists fully prove, that it is a pure and simple metal, with properties peculiar to itself. It cannot be affected by any simple acid, or by any known solvent, except the aqua regia; it will not tarnish in the air, neither will it rust; it unites to the fixedness of gold, and to the property it has of not being susceptible of destruction, a hardness

almost equal to that of iron, and a much greater difficulty of fusion. It is of an intermediate colour between that of iron and silver; it can be forged and extended into thin plates; and when dissolved in aqua regia, it may be made to assume, by precipitation, an infinite diversity of colours; and Count Milby has succeeded in varying these precipitates so much, that he has a picture painted, in the colouring of which there is scarce any thing but platina made use of. Upon the whole, for considering the advantages of the platina, we cannot but conclude that this metal deserves, at least, from its superiority to all others, to share the title of king of metals, of which gold has so long been in possession. The Peruvian bark, so famous at present for curing intermittent fevers, may likewise be mentioned in this place. The tree from which it is taken grows upon the slope of mountains, and is about the size of a common cherry tree. It is distinguished into three kinds; the red, yellow, and the white; but the red is found to be the best and most efficacious. The Jesuits carried this bark to Rome as early as 1639; but the natives are supposed to have been acquainted with its medicinal qualities many ages before.

General Observations.] In treating of this country, the mind is naturally led back to the barbarous and cruel conquerors of it, who, coming from the old world in quest of gold to satisfy their avarice, displayed scenes shocking to humanity. After the conquest, the country scarcely preserved any thing but its name, every thing assuming a new face. There were other edifices, other inhabitants, other occupations, other prejudices, and another religion. See Robertson's History of America.

CHILI.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	1260	between	25° and 44° south latitude.
Breadth	580		65° and 85° west longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED on the north by Peru; by Paraguay or La Plata on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by the Pacifick Ocean on the west. It lies on both sides of the Andes; Chili Proper lies on the west, and Cuyo or Cutio, on the east. The principal towns in the former are St. Jago* and Baldivia; in the latter, St. John de Frontiera.

Climate and Soil.] The climate of Chili is one of the most delightful in the world, being a medium between the intense heats of the torrid, and the piercing colds of the frigid zones. Along the coast of the Pacifick ocean, they enjoy a fine temperate air, and a clear serene sky, most part of the year; but sometimes the winds that blow from the mountains, in winter, are exceedingly sharp. There are

* See a description of this town in the American Gazetteer.

few places in this extensive country where the soil is not exuberantly rich; and were its natural advantages seconded by the industry of the inhabitants, Chili would be the most opulent kingdom in America.

Animal and Vegetable Productions.] The horses and mules of Chili are in great esteem, particularly the former. This breed of horses was originally carried from Old Spain, and, instead of degenerating, have now become superior to the Spanish horses themselves. In beauty and gracefulness, they are not inferior to the famous Andalusian horses; and such is their value, that one of them is thought a present worthy the acceptance of a crowned head.

Prodigious numbers of oxen, goats and sheep are fattened in the luxuriant pastures of Chili, and indeed this is the only part of husbandry to which the inhabitants pay any considerable attention. An ox well fattened may be purchased for four dollars. Turkies, geese, and all kinds of poultry are found here in the same profusion. Wild fowl are also common, among which are wood pigeons, turtle doves, partridges, and royal cirapicos. A very particular species of bird is found in Chili, called the awakener: it is about the size of a middling fowl; its plumage is black and white; has a thick neck; the head rather large, erect, and beautifully adorned with a tuft of feathers; its eyes are large, sharp and lively. On the fore part of its wings are two spurs, about an inch in length; these are its weapons of defence against all other birds. It has obtained the name of the awakener, from the notice it gives to all other birds in time of danger; and this it does, by making a loud chattering noise, which immediately induces the others to fly from the enemy.

The coasts abound with many excellent fish; there are also vast numbers of whales and sea wolves. The soil produces Indian and European corn, hemp, grapes, and all other fruits. The European fruit trees are obliged to be propped, to enable them to sustain the weight of the fruit. The orchards in particular yield great quantities of all sorts of apples; the strawberries are very large, and most commonly red, but sometimes white and yellow. In many places orange trees are in bloom, and bear fruit throughout the year. Olives also, and almond trees thrive exceedingly well; and the inhabitants press a kind of muscadee wine from the grapes, which far exceeds any of the kind made in Spain. The trunks of the vines are in some places said to be as thick as a man's body, and the grapes are amazingly large.

Mines.] Mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, quicksilver, iron and lead, abound in this country. Vast quantities of gold are washed down from the mountains by brooks and torrents; the annual amount of which, when manufactured, is estimated at no less than 800,000 dollars.

Commerce.] Chili has always had commercial connexions with the neighbouring Indians on its frontiers, with Peru and with Paraguay. The Indians in their transactions are found to be perfectly honest. Chili supplies Peru with hides, dried fruit, copper, salt, meal, horses, hemp and corn; and receives in exchange tobacco, sugar, cocoa, earthen ware, some manufactures made at Quito, and some articles of luxury brought from Europe. The ships sent from Callao on this

traffick, which is reciprocally useful, were formerly bound for Conception bay, but now come to Valparaiso. During the course of near a century, no navigator in these tranquil seas would venture to lose sight of land, and then these voyages lasted a whole year. A pilot of the old world, having at length observed the winds, performed the navigation in one month. He was considered as a wizard, and was taken up by order of the inquisition, whose ignorance becomes an object of ridicule, when its cruelty doth not excite our abhorrence. The journal he produced was his vindication; and it plainly appeared, that to perform the same voyage it was only necessary to keep clear of the coasts. His method was therefore universally adopted.

Chili sends to Paraguay wines, brandy, oil, and chiefly gold; and receives in payment mules, wax, cotton, the herb of Paraguay, negroes, and also much of the merchandize of the ancient hemisphere, before the merchants of Lima had obtained, either by bribery or by their influence, that this last branch of commerce should be prohibited. The commerce between the two colonies is not carried on by sea; it hath been found more expeditious, safer, and even less expensive to go by land, though it is 354 leagues from St. Jago to Buennos Ayres, and more than forty leagues of the way are amidst the snows and precipices of the Cordeleras.

Inhabitants, Manners and Customs.] The Indians in this country are still in a great measure unconquered; they live scattered in the deserts and forests, and it is impossible to ascertain their numbers. It has already been mentioned, that those Indians which are not subject to the Spanish yoke are very honest in their commercial transactions, performing to a punctilio whatever they have promised; but, like almost all other Indians, they are very fond of spirituous liquors, and are eager to purchase them from every quarter. They live in small huts which they build in the course of a day or two at farthest; and which they abandon when hard pushed by an enemy. They are brave and warlike, and all the attempts of the Spaniards to subdue them have proved ineffectual. It is almost equally difficult to ascertain the number of Spaniards in Chili. The Abbe Raynal says, there are 40,000 in the city of St. Jago; if this be true, the aggregate number in all the provinces of Chili must be more considerable than has been generally supposed. The character and manners of these people do not differ materially from those in Peru.

Government.] St. Jago is the capital of the state, and the seat of the empire. The commandant there is subordinate to the viceroy of Peru, in all matters relating to the government, to the finances, and to war; but he is independent of him as chief administrator of justice, and president of the royal audience. Eleven inferior officers distributed in the province are charged, under his orders, with the details of administration.

PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 1500 } between { 12° and 37° S. latitude.
Breadth 1000 } { 50° and 75° W. longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Amazonia on the north; by Brazil east; by Patagonia south; and by Peru and Chili west. It contains the following provinces:

Paraguay, Parana, Guira, Uraguia, Tucuman, Rio de la Plata.*

Rivers.] Besides a vast number of smaller rivers, which water this country, there is the grand river La Plata, one of the largest rivers on this globe. It is 150 miles wide at its mouth. It has few islands till you arrive at Buennos Ayres, 180 miles, above which it is full of islands. The navigation of this river is said to be difficult and dangerous. This river has numerous branches spreading in all directions.

Climate, Soil and Produce.] From the situation of this country, some parts of it must be extremely hot, from the almost vertical influence of the rays of the sun; while other parts must be pleasant and delightful. But the heat is in some measure abated by the gentle breezes which generally begin about 9 or 10 o'clock in the morning, and continue the greatest part of the day. Some parts of the country are very mountainous; but in many others you find extensive and beautiful plains, where the soil is very rich, producing wheat and grain of all kinds, cotton, tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, together with a variety of fruits, such as apples, pears, peaches, apricots, pomegranates, quinces, figs, grapes, oranges, lemons, limes, and melons of all sorts; vines are cultivated here, and some delicious wines are made. There are also prodigiously rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that it is said the hides are the only part exported; while the flesh is left to be devoured by the ravenous beasts of the wilderness.

Chief City.] Buennos Ayres, is one of the most considerable towns in South-America, and the only place of traffick to the southward of Brazil. It is the capital of La Plata, in the south division and province of La Plata. South lat. 34° 35′, W. lon. 57° 54′. Its situation on the south side of the river La Plata, on a gentle eminence, is healthy and pleasant and the air temperate. Back of the city, from south-west to south-east, is Pampas Plain, of 300 miles extent, in constant verdure, interspersed with country seats, producing few trees, but much grass, on which subsist innumerable horses and cattle. Towards the north, the great river spreads like a spacious sea, the opposite shore being

* A letter from an American gentleman at Buennos Ayres, dated April 15, 1801, informs, that the province of Rio de la Plata, though formerly a part of Paraguay, now forms a separate government; that it is bounded north-west by Tucuman and Grand Chaco, and extends south to the straits of Magellan, comprehending a great part of the country east of the Andes.

beyond the reach of the eye. It is 7 miles in circumference, and regularly built in squares of about 200 feet. Its streets are 30 or 40 feet wide, and very dirty; the houses one story high, chiefly of brick, with a court in the middle, and each is accommodated with a garden. The number of inhabitants is estimated variously, at 15,000, 30,000, and some late accounts say 100,000; many of them are slaves. One side of the town is defended by a fortress with a garrison. The town stands 180 miles from the sea. The mail comes in once a month from Lima. In ascending the river, it is necessary to anchor every night; and on the most moderate days a pilot must go to sound the way for the ship, on account of the shallowness of the water, and the shifting of the channel. After having surmounted these difficulties, the ships are obliged at the distance of three leagues from the town, to put their goods on board some light vessel, and to go and refit, and to wait for their cargoes at Incunado de Barragan, situated 7 or 8 leagues below. This city was erected into a bishoprick in the year 1620. The tribunal of the Royal Audience was founded 1663, extinguished a few years after, and re-established in 1783. The buildings, although of brick, are handsome, commodious, and many truly elegant. There are 16 churches, 11 of which are large and rich; 5 convents, and 2 monasteries, 2 hospitals with rich funds, 1 for men and the other for women, 1 foundling hospital, 1 college, and 1 academy for teaching geography, navigation and drawing. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru; but no regular fleet comes here as to the other parts of Spanish America; 2, or at most 3, register ships, make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe. The returns are chiefly gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar and hides. Those who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The contraband traders carry dry goods, and take in return hides, tallow and copper. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose, in such parts of Brazil as lie near this country. The most valuable commodities come here to be exchanged for European goods, such as Vigogma wool from Peru, copper from Coquimbo, gold from Chili, and silver from Potosi. From the towns of Corientes and Paraguay, the former 250, the latter 500 leagues from Buennos Ayres, are brought hither the finest tobacco, sugars, cotton, thread, yellow wax, and cotton cloth; and from Paraguay, the herb, so called, and so highly valued, being a kind of tea, drank all over South-America by the better sort; which one branch is computed to amount to a million of pieces of eight, annually, all paid in goods, no money being allowed to pass here. The commerce between Peru and Buennos Ayres, is chiefly for cattle and mules to an immense value. When the English had the advantage of the Assiento contract, negro slaves were brought hither by factors, and sold to the Spaniards. It was founded by Don Pedro de Mendoza, in 1535, but afterwards abandoned. In 1544, another colony of Spaniards came here, who left it also; but it was rebuilt in 1582, and is at present inhabited by Spaniards and native Americans. The air is pure and healthy, particularly in the winter season, which begins in June, with much rain,

at which time the thunder and lightning are so violent, that it is necessary to be accustomed to the country before one can live without fear. The heat of the sun in the summer is tempered by refreshing breezes from the river. The country abounds with all kinds of fruit which can satisfy the appetite of man; among which are apples, pears, peaches, apricots, pomegranates, quinces, figs, grapes, oranges, lemons, limes, and all kinds of melons. The vine is cultivated here, and some very delicious wines are made; but in general the wine is disagreeable to those not accustomed to it.

General Observations.] It is a circumstance well known to all who are acquainted with the history of South-America, that long ago the Jesuits introduced themselves into this country, and made great efforts to civilize and christianize the natives. Their conduct and institutions open an abundant source of reflection. We are naturally led to inquire what could induce them to abandon the seat of ease and tranquillity; to traverse immense deserts; to climb the craggy cliffs of lofty mountains; to plunge into deep and miry swamps; to subject themselves to hunger, to thirst, to danger and misery of every kind; surrounded by fierce and unknown savages, whose characters they were unacquainted with, and whose suspicions might have armed them with vengeance in an instant; who neither knew or cared to know the errand on which these missionaries came; whose manner of life was independent, and whose minds disdained the burdens of civilized life: I say, we wish to know what powerful motives could have inclined these missionaries to leave society, and encounter all these dangers. Was it the love of riches, a thirst for glory, or the good of mankind, that influenced their conduct? or were they influenced by a blind and misguided superstition? Whatever may have been their motives, if history speaks the truth, they have really made the inhabitants of this part of the new world more virtuous, more civil, and more happy.

Although money is very plenty, and labour extravagantly high, most other things are suprizingly cheap. A fat bullock is sold for a dollar; a hog, weighing from 300 to 400 pounds, sells for a dollar and 50 cents; a good saddle-horse will fetch from 50 cents to 30 dollars. Some farmers in Paraguay keep 50,000 mares for breeding: their sheep are almost innumerable, their meat and wool are excellent. The country is overrun with herds of cattle and horses, which are killed principally for their hides, the tongues and tallow being of little value. There are besides many rare animals, and birds of remarkable plumage; among the first is the tiger, which is larger than those in Africa, or any other part; likewise the ant-bear, which feeds only on that insect, and is accomodated with a long sharp trunk to draw them from their nests; also the chinchela, which is of the size of a small dog, and is of a bright grey colour, and finer than the best silk. This province has been for some years rich and flourishing; since the galleons have left going to Terra Firma, this has become the general port of commerce for all the province of Peru; to which place, and also to Chili, the merchandize is transported in carts drawn by oxen, which generally go in caravans, and armed, on account of the savage and warlike Indians which still keep possession of a great part of those

extensive plains which lie between this and the Cordeleras mountains, called the Pampas. During the late war, they have had no sufficient market for their wool, and lately 60,000 sheep have been sold for 70 dollars; the purchaser was obliged to count them. A great part of the sheep have 3 or 4 large horns. Various kinds of furs in great abundance are brought from Patagonia by the Indians, among which are tigers and leopards. The river La Plata annually overflows its banks, rendering its shores amazingly fertile; and very rarely does the vegetable kingdom suffer for want of rain. Yet great numbers live in extreme poverty; for every person, who makes any pretensions to being white, has a mortal aversion to labour. If they can only procure a puncho they are easy. The puncho is a square piece of cloth made by the Indians of Chili, about three yards square, with wide stripes, and a yellow fringe. A hole is made through the middle, bound with gold lace; through this they put their heads, and the cloth hangs loose round their bodies. A ragged pair of breeches, but no coat, waistcoat, shirt, stockings or shoes are worn with the puncho. These people will beg, steal, rob, or murder rather than work. The rich people live in affluence, are affable, hospitable to strangers, and charitable to the poor. They make a considerable show of religion, but it is said they are deceitful and treacherous. Their amusements are riding, bull baiting, and dancing. Fish and fowls are too easily caught to afford great amusement. Seines are dragged in the river by horses or oxen; the water being so shallow they may proceed half a mile from the shore. The country swarms with quails, partridges and other birds. They ride among them, and with a long lash bring them down. Wild horses and cattle are caught with a long thong of raw hide, one end being fastened to the saddle; at the other is a two pound ball; this they throw and entangle the beast, and bring him to the ground. The Indians use this in battle, and the Spaniards often find it a deadly weapon. This great and rich country for want of an active commerce, is like a great carcass without arteries or veins, activity or life. Under the direction of a wise legislature, labour would be rouzed, commerce would whiten every sea, useful science would exalt, and the fine arts adorn this happy clime.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

BRAZIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	2,500	between	The Equator, and 35° S. latitude.
Breadth	700		35° and 60° W. longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon and the Atlantick Ocean on the north; and by the same ocean on the east; on the south, by the river Plata; on the

west, by morasses, lakes, torrents, rivers and mountains, which separate it from Amazonia, and the Spanish possessions. On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions on their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbaro, and St. Catharine's.

Bays, Harbours and Rivers.] These are the harbours of Panambuco, All Saints, Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador. There is a great number of noble streams, which unite with the rivers Amazon and Plata; beside others which fall into the Atlantick Ocean.

Climate, Soil and Productions.] The climate of Brazil has been described by two eminent naturalists, Piso and Margrave, who observed it with philosophical accuracy, to be temperate and mild, when compared with that of Africa. They ascribe this chiefly to the refreshing wind, which blows continually from the sea. The air is not only cool, but chilly through the night, so that the natives kindle a fire every evening in their huts. As the rivers in this country annually overflow their banks, and leave a sort of slime upon the lands, the soil here must be in many places amazingly rich; and this corresponds with the best information upon the subject. The vegetable productions are Indian corn, sugar canes, tobacco, indigo, hides, ipecacuana, balsam, Brazil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dying, but not the red of the best kind. Here is also the yellow fustick, of use in dying yellow; and a beautiful piece of speckled wood, made use of in cabinet work. Here are five different sorts of palm trees, some curious ebony, and a great variety of cotton trees. This country abounds in horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides only, 20,000 being sent annually into Europe. There is also a plenty of deer, hares and other game. Amongst the wild beasts found here, are tigers, porcupines, janouveras, and a fierce animal, somewhat like a greyhound; monkies, sloths and the topirasson, a creature between a bull and an ass, but without horns and entirely harmless; the flesh is very good, and has the flavour of beef. There is a numberless variety of fowl, wild and tame in this country. Among these are turkies, fine white hens and ducks. The remarkable birds are the humming bird; the lankima, sometimes called the unicorn bird, from its having a horn two or three inches long growing out of its forehead; the guira, famous for often changing its colour, being first black, then ash coloured, next white, afterwards scarlet, and last of all crimson; which colours grow richer and deeper the longer the bird lives. Among the abundance of fish with which the seas, lakes and rivers of this country are stored, is the globe fish so called from its form, which is so beset with spines like a hedge hog, that it bids defiance to all fish of prey. But the most remarkable creature is the sea bladder, so called because it greatly resembles one, and swims on the surface of the waves; the inside is filled with air, except a small quantity of water that serves to poise it. The skin is very thin and transparent, and like a bubble raised in the water, reflects all the colours of the sky. Brazil breeds a great variety of serpents and venomous creatures, among which are the Indian salamander, a four-legged insect, the sting of which is mortal; the ibivaboca,

a species of serpent about seven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, whose poison is instantaneously fatal; the rattle-snake, which there attains an enormous size; the liboyd or roe-buck snake, which, authors inform us, is capable of swallowing a roe-buck whole with its horns, being between twenty and thirty feet in length and two yards in circumference. Besides those, there are many other insects and serpents of a dangerous and venomous nature.

Commerce and Chief Towns.] The trade of Brazil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprizing, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works, at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America; they being almost the only European nation that has established considerable colonies in Africa, and from whence they import as many as 40,000 negroes annually. The exports of Brazil are, diamonds, sugar, tobacco, hides, drugs and medicines; and they receive in return, woollen goods of all kinds, linens, laces, silks, hats, lead, tin, pewter, copper, iron, beef, and cheese. They also receive from Madeira a great quantity of wine, vinegar, and brandy; and from Azores, 25,000l. worth of other liquors.

St. Salvador is the capital of Brazil. This city, which has a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour, is built on a high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, a lake forming a crescent on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have besides added to it very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and beyond comparison the most gay and opulent in all Brazil.

St. Sebastian, by others called Rio Janeiro, stands on the west side of the harbour of the latter name, in a low situation, and almost surrounded by hills, which, by retarding the circulation of the air, renders the place very unsalutary to European constitutions. Its extent is very considerable, being from east to west about four miles in length, and from north to south about two miles in breadth. The streets, (for there are no squares) are very regular and uniform, intersecting each other at right angles: they are well paved, abound in shops of every kind, and are composed of houses equally well built, and adapted to the climate. In the centre of the city, and opposite to the beach, stands the palace of the viceroy; it is a large, long and narrow building, without any attraction from its exterior appearance, but contains within a succession of spacious and noble apartments. The streets are not only spacious and convenient, but remarkable for their cleanliness, many of them containing ranges of shops and warehouses that would do credit to the cities of Europe. There is a custom here, which appears to be worthy of imitation in all places of considerable trade and commerce, that all persons of the same profession occupy the same street or district; and a deviation from this rule is very rarely known in this city. The population of this place, judging from its extent, may be 200,000 souls. The people, who are Roman Catholicks, are very much attached to the ceremonials of their religion, which they observe with extreme superstition. The churches are very numerous, and fitted up with ostentatious finery. On the festival of their patrons, these edifices are richly adorned and

beautifully illuminated. Near the middle of the city, and on a commanding eminence, there is a publick observatory, furnished with an astronomical apparatus.

The inhabitants are very ostentatious in their dress, and every rank of people are in the habit of considering swords as essential to their publick appearance; even children are not considered as exempt from this ornamental weapon. The dress of their ladies bears a near resemblance to that of European women, except in the decoration of the head. Their hair is smoothed back in the front, and adorned with artificial flowers, beads and feathers, fantastically arranged; behind, it falls down in a variety of plaited tresses, intermixed with ribbons of various colours, each tress terminating in a rose made of ribbon. They also wear a large mantle of silk, hanging loosely behind in the form of a train, which is borne by one servant, while another holds an umbrella to shade the face of his mistress from the sun. The females of Brazil are generally of a pale complexion, but have a certain delicacy of feature which renders them very pleasing objects; and the affability of their manners heightens the agreeableness of their personal attractions.

The trade of this place is very considerable, and the source of great wealth to the inhabitants as well as to the mother country. The various articles which are exported from hence, are the same as those produced in other parts of the Portuguese settlements in Brazil. The wharves are very large and peculiarly commodious. The rice, of which great quantities are exported from this settlement, is contained in undressed bullocks' hides.

On the north-west side of the town there is a stupendous aqueduct, which is an object of uncommon curiosity. It is in the form of a bridge, contains eighty arches, and, in some parts, is at least 150 feet in height, and is seen, in some points of view, with peculiar effect, rising gradually above the loftiest buildings of the city. This immense chain of arches stretches across a valley, and unites the hills that form it. The object for which it was erected is completely answered, as it conveys water from perennial springs, at the distance of five miles, into the town, where, by means of leaden pipes, it is conducted to a large and elegant reservoir at the beach, opposite to the viceroy's palace. This water is of the best quality, and is withal so very abundant, as not only to afford an adequate supply for all the wants of the inhabitants, but to furnish the ships that come into the harbour with this necessary element.

The military establishment at Rio Janeiro is on a very respectable footing. The soldiers are not only well clothed and disciplined, but are allowed to enjoy all the privileges of citizens. It seems to be a policy of the Portuguese government, and a very wise one it is, to render the situation of the soldiery in their American settlements comfortable in itself, and respectable in its character. Thus the loyalty and zeal of the soldiers are happily secured in a situation so important from its value, and where vigilance and fidelity in those who guard it become more necessary in proportion to its remoteness from the mother country. The number of troops in Rio Janeiro, including cavalry and infantry, amount to 20,000 men; and the militia are at

least double that number. At the same time the place is admirably fortified both by art and nature. It is situated about two miles from the mouth of the bay, and is defended by nine strong forts, well supplied with artillery and sufficient garrisons. There are also two small islands in the middle of the bay, one at the entrance, called Santa Cruz Fort, and another at a small distance, which still add to the strength of the situation, and the difficulty of attacking it with advantage.*

Mines.] There are gold mines in many parts of this country, which have been wrought with considerable profit to government. The extraction of gold is neither very laborious nor dangerous in Brazil. It is sometimes on the surface of the soil, and this is the purest kind, and at other times it is necessary to dig for it 18 or 20 feet, but seldom lower. It is found in larger pieces upon the mountains and barren rocks than in the vallies or on the borders of the river. Every man who discovers a mine must give notice of it to the government. If the vein be thought of little consequence by persons appointed to examine it, it is always given up to the publick. If it be declared to be a rich vein, the government reserve a portion of it to themselves. Another share is given to the commandant; a third to the intendant; and two shares are secured to the discoverer. The miners are obliged to deliver to the king of Portugal a fifth part of all the gold which is extracted. There are also many diamond mines, which have been discovered in this country; they are of all colours and also of every shade. The diamond has the red of the ruby, the orange of the hyacinth, the blue of the sapphire, and the green of the emerald. The last is the most scarce and dear when it is of a beautiful tint. Transparency and clearness are the natural essential properties of the diamond.

Natives.] The native Brazilians are about the size of the Europeans, but not so stout. They are subject to fewer distempers, and are long lived. They wear no clothing; the women wear their hair extremely long, the men cut theirs short; the women wear bracelets of bones of a beautiful white, the men necklaces of the same; the women paint their faces, and the men their bodies. The food of the Brazilians is very simple; the live upon shell fish by the sea side; along the rivers by fishing, and in the forests by hunting; and when these fail, they live upon cassava and other roots. They are extremely fond of dancing and other amusements; and these amusements are not interrupted by the worship of a Supreme Being, for it is said they know of none; nor is their tranquillity disturbed by the dread of a future state, of which they have no idea. They have, however, their magicians, who, by strange contortions, so far work upon the credulity of the people, as to throw them into violent convulsions. If the impostures of these magicians are detected, they are immediately put to death, which serves in some measure to check the spirit of deceit. Every Brazilian takes as many wives as he chooses, and puts them away when he gets tired of them. When the women lie in, they keep their bed but a day or two; then the mother,

* Anderson's Narrative of the British Embassy to China.

hanging the child to her neck in a cotton scarf, returns to her usual occupation, without any kind of inconvenience. Travellers are received with distinguished marks of civility by the native Brazilians. Wherever they go, they are surrounded with women, who wash their feet, and welcome them with the most obliging expressions. But it would be an unpardonable affront, if they should leave the family where they were first entertained, in hopes of better accommodation in another. Some of these virtues, however, were more applicable to these natives, before they were corrupted by an intercourse with Europeans.

Religion.] Though the king of Portugal, as grand master of the order of Christ, be solely in possession of the titles; and though the produce of the crusade belongs entirely to him; yet in this extensive country, six bishopricks have been successively founded, which acknowledge for their superior the archbishop of Bohia, established in the year 1552. The fortunate prelates, most of them Europeans, who fill these honourable sees, live in a very commodious manner, upon the emoluments attached to the function of their ministry, and upon a pension of 50l. and from that to 1250l. granted to them by the government. Among the inferior clergy, none but the missionaries, who are settled in the Indian villages, are paid; but the others find sufficient resources among the superstitious people, whom they are to edify, to instruct, and to comfort. Besides an annual tribute, paid by every family to the clergyman, he is entitled to two shillings for every birth, for every wedding, and every burial. Though there be not absolutely any inquisition in Brazil, yet the people of that country are not protected from the outrages of that barbarous institution.

Government.] The government of Brazil is in the viceroy, who has two councils; one for criminal, the other for civil affairs, in both of which he presides; but there is no part of the world where the lawyers are more corrupt, or the chicanery of their profession more practised.

Only half of the 16 Captainries, into which this country is divided, belong to the crown; the rest being fiefs made over to some of the nobility, in reward of their extraordinary services, who do little more than acknowledge the sovereignty of the king of Portugal.

History, &c.] The Portuguese discovered this country in the year 1500, but did not plant it till the year 1549, when they took possession of All Saints Bay, and built the city of St. Salvador, which is now the residence of the viceroy and archbishop. The Dutch invaded Brazil in 1623, and subdued the northern provinces; but the Portuguese agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold to relinquish their interests in this country, which was accepted, and the Portuguese remained in peaceable possession of all Brazil till about the end of 1762, when the Spanish governour of Buennos Ayres hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress, called St. Sacrament; but by the treaty of peace it was restored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

CAYENNE.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north and east, by the Atlantick Ocean; south, by Amazonia; and west, by Guiana or Surinam. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and nearly 300 miles within land; lying between the equator and the 5th degree north latitude.

Climate, Soil and Produce.] The land along the coast is low, marshy and very subject to inundations during the rainy seasons, from the multitude of rivers which rush down from the mountains with great impetuosity. Here the atmosphere is very hot, moist and unwholesome, especially where the woods are not cleared away; but on the higher parts where the trees are cut down, and the ground laid out in plantations, the air is more healthy and the heat greatly mitigated by the sea breezes. The soil in many parts is very fertile, producing sugar, tobacco, Indian corn, fruits and other necessaries of life.

General Observations.] The French have taken possession of an island, upon this coast, called also Cayenne. It is about 30 miles in circumference, and is very unhealthy; but having some good harbours, they have here some settlements, which raise sugar, coffee, and some other kinds of produce. The French established themselves here in 1635; but they afterwards abandoned the island, and the English took possession of it. Soon after, the French returned and drove out the English; but were expelled in their turn by the Dutch, who kept their conquest but a short time, and then were subdued by the French, who still keep possession of it. The whole of Cayenne is an inconsiderable province, and therefore very little is related of it.

DUTCH AMERICA.

DUTCH GUIANA,

THE only province belonging to the Dutch on the continent of America, is bounded north, by the Atlantick Ocean; east, by Cayenne; south, by unexplored country; west, by Oronoko, a Spanish settlement. It lies between 5° and 7° N. lat. extending along the

coast from the mouth of the Oronoko river to the river Marowyne.* It is divided into three distinct governments, viz.

Surinam,	} Essequebo and
Berbisch,	} Demarara.

The two last named are two districts, forming one government.

Rivers.] A number of fine rivers, pass through this country, the principal of which are Essequebo, Surinam, Demarara, Berbisch and Canya. Essequebo is 21 miles wide at its mouth, and is more than 300 miles in length. Surinam is a beautiful river, three quarters of a mile wide, navigable for the largest vessels 12 miles, and for smaller vessels 60 or 70 miles further. Its banks, quite to the water's edge, are covered with evergreen mangrove trees, which render the passage up this river very delightful. The Demarara is about 2 miles wide at its mouth opposite the Fort, but 12 miles above, it narrows to the width of a little more than a mile. Its course is from south to north. The entrance is obstructed by a mud bank, on which, at the highest tides there are not more than 24 feet water. The difference between high and low water mark is from 10 to 12 feet. This river is navigable, for vessels that can pass the bar upwards of 100 miles. The fort stands on the east bank of the river, at its mouth, and is so constructed that, if well supplied with men and ammunition, it would effectually guard its entrance. About a mile and a half above this fort, on the same side of the river, is situated the town called Staebroeck, which is the seat of government and the depository for the records. The station for the shipping extends from the fort to about two miles above the town. They anchor in a line from two to four abreast.

Climate.] In the months of September, October and November, the climate is unhealthy, particularly to strangers. The common diseases are putrid and other fevers, the dry belly ache, and the dropsy. A hundred miles back from the sea, you come to quite a different soil, a hilly country, a pure, dry, wholesome air, where a fire sometimes would not be disagreeable. Along the sea-coast, the water is brackish and unwholesome, and the air damp and sultry. The thermometer ranges from 75° to 90° through the year. A north-east breeze never fails to blow from about 9 o'clock in the morning through the day in the hottest seasons. As the days and nights, throughout the year, are very nearly of equal length, the air can never become extremely heated, nor the inhabitants so greatly incommoded by the heat, as those who live at a greater distance from the equator. The seasons were formerly divided regularly into rainy and dry; but of late years so much dependence cannot be placed upon them, owing probably to the country's being more cleared, by which means a free passage is opened for the air and vapours.

Water.] The water of the lower parts of the rivers is brackish, and unfit for use; and the inhabitants are obliged to make use of rain water, which is here uncommonly sweet and good. It is caught

* When Admiral Rodney, in 1780, captured these settlements, he said they were an acquisition to the British empire, of more value than all their West-India islands.

in cisterns placed under ground, and before drinking, is set in large earthen pots to settle, by which means it becomes very clear and wholesome. These cisterns are so large and numerous, that water is seldom scarce.

*Chief Towns, Population, Customs and Character.**] Paramaribo, situated on Surinam river, 4 leagues from the sea, N. lat. 6°, W. lon. 55° from London, is the principal town in the district of Surinam. It contains about 2,000 whites, one half of whom are Jews, and 8,000 slaves. The houses are principally of wood; some few have glass windows, but generally they have wooden shutters. The streets are spacious and straight, and planted on each side with orange or tamarind trees.

About seventy miles from the sea, on the same river, is a village of about 40 or 50 houses, inhabited by Jews. This village and the town above mentioned, with the intervening plantations, contain all the inhabitants in this colony, which amount to 3,200 whites, and 43,000 slaves. The buildings on the plantations are many of them costly, convenient and airy. The country around is thinly inhabited with the native Indians, a harmless friendly people. They are, in general, of a short stature, but remarkably well made; of a light copper colour, straight black hair, without beards, high cheek bones, and broad shoulders. In their ears, noses and hair, the women wear ornaments of silver, &c. Both men and women go naked. One nation or tribe of them tie the lower part of the leg of the female children, when young, with a cord bound very tight for the breadth of six inches about the ancle, which cord is never afterwards taken off but to put on a new one; by which means the flesh, which should otherwise grow on that part of the leg, increases the calf to a great size, and leaves the bone below nearly bare. This, though it must render them very weak, is reckoned a great beauty by them. The language of the Indians appears to be very soft. They are mortal enemies to every kind of labour; but nevertheless manufacture a few articles, such as very fine cotton hammocks, earthern water-pots, baskets, a red or yellow die called *Roucau*, and some other trifles, all which they bring to town, and exchange for such articles as they need.

They paint themselves red, and some are curiously figured with black. Their food consists chiefly of fish and crabs and cassava, of which they plant great quantities, and this is almost the only article they cultivate. They cannot be said to be absolutely wandering tribes; but their huts being merely a few cross sticks, covered with branches so as to defend them from the rain and sun, they frequently quit their habitations if they see occasion, and establish them elsewhere. They do not shun the whites, and have been serviceable against the runaway negroes.

Dr. Bancroft observes, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddish brown aboriginal natives. The promiscuous intercourse of these different people have generated sev-

* This and the three following heads, relate chiefly to the district of Surinam, and the information is derived from a letter from Mr. Apthorp to his father in Boston, and published in the Collections of the Historical Society.

eral intermediate casts, whose colours depend on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, blacks, negroes or Indians.

Soil, Productions, Trade, &c.] Through the whole country runs a ridge of oyster shells, nearly parallel to the coast, but three or four leagues from it, of a considerable breadth, and from four to eight feet deep, composed of shells exactly of the same nature as those which form the present coast. From this and other circumstances, there is great reason to believe that the land, for that distance from the sea, is all *new land*, rescued from the sea, either by some revolution in nature, or other unknown cause.

On each side of the rivers and creeks are situated the plantations, containing from 500 to 2,000 acres each, in number about 550 in the whole colony, producing at present annually about 16,000hhds. of sugar, 12,000,000lb. coffee, 700,000lb. cocoa, 850,000lb. cotton; all which articles (cotton excepted) have fallen off within 15 years, at least one third, owing to bad management, both here and in Holland, and to other causes. Of the proprietors of these plantations, not above 80 reside here. The sugar plantations have many of them water mills, which being much more profitable than others, and the situation of the colony admitting of them, will probably become general; of the rest, some are worked by mules, others by cattle, but, from the lowness of the country, none by the wind. The estates are for the greatest part mortgaged for as much or more than they are worth, which greatly discourages any improvements which might otherwise be made. Were it not for the unfortunate situation of the colony in this and in other respects, it is certainly capable of being brought to a great height of improvement; dies, gums, oils, plants for medicinal purposes, &c. might, and undoubtedly will, at some future period, be found in abundance. Rum might be distilled here; indigo, ginger, rice, tobacco, have been and may be farther cultivated; and many other articles. In the woods are found many kinds of good and durable timber, and some woods for ornamental purposes, particularly a kind of mahogany, called *copick*. The soil is perhaps as rich and as luxuriant as any in the world; it is generally a rich, fat, clayey earth, lying in some places above the level of the rivers at high water, (which rises about 8 feet) but in most places below it. Whenever, from a continued course of cultivation for many years, a piece of land becomes impoverished (for manure is not known here) it is laid under water for a certain number of years, and thereby regains its fertility, and in the mean time a new piece of wood land is cleared. This country has never experienced those dreadful scourges of the West-Indies, hurricanes; and droughts, from the lowness of the land, it has not to fear; nor has the produce ever been destroyed by insects or by the blast. In short, this colony, by proper management, might become equal to Jamaica, or any other. Land is not wanting, it is finely intersected by noble rivers, and abundant creeks; the soil is of the best kind, it is well situated, and the climate is not very unhealthy, and is growing better, and will continue so to do the more the country is cleared of its woods, and cultivated.

Animals, Fish, Serpents, &c.] The rivers abound with fish, some of which are good; at certain seasons of the year there is plenty of turtle. The woods abound with plenty of deer, hares and rabbits, a kind

of buffalo, and two species of wild hogs, one of which (the peccary) is remarkable for having its navel on the back.

The woods are infested with several species of tigers, but with no other ravenous or dangerous animals. The rivers are rendered dangerous by alligators from four to seven feet long, and a man was a short time since crushed between the jaws of a fish, but its name is not known. Scorpions and tarantulas, are found here of a large size and great venom, and other insects without number, some of them very dangerous and troublesome. The torporifick eel also, the touch of which, by means of the bare hand or any conductor, has the effect of a strong electrical shock. Serpents also, some of which are venomous, and others, as has been asserted by many credible persons, are from 25 to 50 feet long. In the woods are monkies, the sloth, and parrots in all their varieties; also some birds of beautiful plumage, among others the flamingo, but few or no singing birds.

Military Strength, Government, &c.] The river Surinam is guarded by a fort and two redoubts at the entrance, and a fort at Paramaribo, but none of them of any strength, so that one or two frigates would be sufficient to make themselves masters of the whole colony; and never was there a people who more ardently wished for a change of government, than the inhabitants of this colony do at this time. The many grievances they labour under, and the immense burthen of taxes, which almost threaten the ruin of the colony, make them in some measure excusable in their general desire to change the Dutch for a British or French government. The colony is not immediately under the states general, but under a company in Holland, called the Directors of Surinam, (a company first formed by the states general, but now supplying its own vacancies) by whom are appointed the governour and all the principal officers both civil and military. The interior government consists of a governour and a supreme and inferior council; the members of the latter are chosen by the governour from a double nomination of the principal inhabitants, and those of the former in the same manner. By these powers, and by a magistrate presiding over all criminal affairs, justice is executed and laws are enacted, necessary for the interior government of the colony; those of a more general and publick nature are enacted by the directors, and require no approbation here by the court.

The colony is guarded further by about 1,600 regular troops, paid by the directors. These troops, together with a corps of about 250 free negroes, paid by the court here, and another small corps of chasseurs, and so many slaves as the court thinks fit to order from the planters from time to time, are dispersed at posts placed at proper distances on a *Cordon*, surrounding the colony on the land side, in order, as fast as possible, to defend the distant plantations and the colony in general from the attacks of several dangerous gangs of runaway slaves, which, from very small beginnings, have, from the natural prolificacy of the negro race, and the continual addition of fresh fugitives, become so formidable as to have cost the country very great sums of money, and much loss of men, without being able to do these negroes any effectual injury.

DEMARARA DISTRICT.*

THIS district, which, together with Essequebo, form one government, derives its name from the river which passes through it, already described. It extends along the sea-coast from Abary Creek, about 66 miles to Boerassirie Creek.

From Abary Creek to Demarara River, a distance of about 45 miles of sea-coast, the planters attend chiefly to the cultivation of cotton. Their estates are regularly laid out in lots along the sea shore, called *façades*, of about a quarter of a mile wide, and extending three quarters of a mile back into the country; these lots are supposed to contain 250 acres each, and, when fully cultivated, it is customary for the proprietor to obtain a similar tract, back of the first, which, when planted, another is procured, and so on, in progression. These lots will contain 120,000 cotton trees each, which average annually half a pound a tree. A plantation that has a slave to 1,000 trees is considered as well stocked. It is found that the cotton tree does not thrive far back from the sea, the sea vapour being found, from experience, necessary to an advantageous bursting of the pods. The shores of the rivers and creeks are chiefly planted with coffee to the distance of about 30 miles from the sea: thence 30 miles further up, the soil at this distance having become more stiff and clayey, the sugar cane is mostly cultivated. Beyond this, (though formerly attempted to be cultivated) the finest kinds of wood, for building, furniture, &c. are cut.

Demarara river is yearly visited by 40 or 50 large ships from Holland, who often make two voyages in a year, besides upwards of 250 smaller vessels, under the Dutch and other flags.

Demarara and Essequebo together contain about 3,000 whites and 40,000 slaves.

Essequebo and Demerara are subject to the same governour, and the same court of police, but each has a separate court of justice. The governour is the executive, and he is assisted in all matters respecting the police, by a council, consisting of a fiscal (who, as is also the governour, is appointed by the mother country) and four other persons, who deliberate, and must, if required, give in writing their sentiments, on such subjects only as the governour (who alone may suggest matters for deliberation) pleases to lay before them. He may dissent from their opinion, if disposed to take the responsibility upon himself.

Criminal and civil causes are decided by a council of 7 members, of which the governour and fiscal for the time are, *ex officiis*, members. The four persons to complete the court of police, and the five members, who constitute the civil and criminal justice, are appointed by what is called a college, or court of *choosers* or electors, consisting of seven persons, who hold their office for life. All persons possess-

* The following account of this district was lately furnished the author by an intelligent, respectable and obliging gentleman, Mr Daly, an inhabitant of Demarara.

ing 25 slaves have a voice in supplying a vacancy among the electors. Were the council, in the first instance, chosen by the people, instead of being intermediately chosen by electors, it might abridge the power of the governour, and prevent many abuses, and would be more consonant to republican principles.

History.] This colony was first possessed by the French, as early as the year 1630 or 40, and was abandoned by them on account of its unhealthy climate. In the year 1650 it was taken up by some Englishmen, and in 1662, a charter was granted by Charles II. About this time, it was considerably augmented by the settlement of a number of Jews, who had been driven out of Cayenne and the Brazils, whose descendants (with other Jews) compose at present one half of the white inhabitants of the colony, and are allowed great privileges. In 1667, it was taken by the Dutch, and the English having got possession about the same time of the then Dutch colony of New-York, each party retained its conquest; the English planters most of them retired to Jamaica, leaving their slaves behind them, whose language is still English, but so corrupted as not to be understood at first by an Englishman.

ABORIGINAL AMERICA,

OR THAT PART WHICH THE ABORIGINAL INDIANS POSSESS.

AMAZONIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 1400 } between { the Equator and 20°
Breadth 900 } { South Latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by Terra Firma and Guiana; east by Brazil; south by Paraguay; and west by Peru.

Rivers.] The river Amazon is the largest in the known world. This river, so famous for the length of its course, that great vassal of the sea, to which it brings the tribute it has received from so many of its own vassals, seems to be produced by innumerable torrents, which rush down with amazing impetuosity from the eastern declivity of the Andes, and unite in a spacious plain to form this immense river. In its progress of 3,300 miles, it receives the waters of a prodigious number of rivers, some of which come from far, and are very broad and deep. It is interspersed with an infinite number of islands, which are too often overflowed to admit of culture. It falls into the Atlantick Ocean under the Equator, and is there 150 miles broad.

Climate, Soil and Productions.] The air is cooler in this country than could be expected, considering it is situated in the middle of the torrid zone. This is partly owing to the heavy rains which occasion the rivers to overflow their banks one half of the year, and partly to the cloudiness of the weather, which obscures the sun a great part of the time he is above the horizon. During the rainy seasons, the country is subject to dreadful storms of thunder and lightning.

The soil is extremely fertile, producing cocoa nuts, pine apples, bananas, plantains, and a great variety of tropical fruits; cedar, redwood, pak, ebony, logwood, and many other sorts of dying wood; together with tobacco, sugar canes, cotton, potatoes, balsam, honey, &c. The woods abound with tigers, wild boars, buffaloes, deer, and game of various kinds. The rivers and lakes abound with fish. Here are also sea cows and turtles; but the crocodiles and water serpents render fishing a dangerous employment.

Women.] As early as the time of Hercules and Theseus, the Greeks had imagined the existence of a nation of Amazons; with this fable they embellished the history of all their heroes, not excepting that of Alexander; and the Spaniards, infatuated with this dream of antiquity, transferred it to America. They reported that a republick of female warriors actually existed in America, who did not live in society with men, and only admitted them once a year for the purpose of procreation. To give the more credit to this romantick story, it was reported, not without reason, that the women in America were all so unhappy, and were treated with such contempt and inhumanity by the men, that many of them had agreed to shake off the yoke of their tyrants. It was further said, that being accustomed to follow the men into the forests, and to carry their provisions and baggage when they went out to fight or to hunt, they must necessarily have been inured to hardships, and rendered capable of forming so bold a resolution. Since this story has been propagated, infinite pains have been taken to find out the truth of it; but no traces could ever be discovered.

Natives.] These natives, like all the other Americans, are of a good stature, have handsome features, long black hair, and copper complexions. They are said to have a taste for the imitative arts, especially painting and sculpture; and make good mechanicks. Their cordage is made of the bark of trees, and their sails of cotton, their hatchets of tortoise shells or hard stones, their chisels, planes and wimbles of the horns and teeth of wild beasts; and their canoes are trees hollowed. They spin and weave cotton cloth; and build their houses with wood and clay, and thatch them with reeds. Their arms in general are darts and javelins, bows and arrows, with targets of cane or fish skins. The several nations are governed by their chiefs or caciques; it being observable that the monarchical form of government has prevailed almost universally, both among the ancient and modern barbarians, doubtless, on account of its requiring a much less refined policy than the republican system. The regalia which distinguish the chiefs are a crown of parrot's feathers, a chain of tigers' teeth or claws, which hangs round the waist, and a wooden sword,

General Observations.] The mind of a good man is pleased with the reflection, that any part of South-America has escaped the ravages of European conquerors. This country has hitherto remained unsubdued. The original inhabitants enjoy their native freedom and independence.

PATAGONIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 1100 } between 35° and 54° South Latitude.
Breadth 350 }

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by Chili and Paraguay; east by the Atlantick Ocean; south by the Straits of Magellan; west by the Pacifick Ocean.

Climate, Soil and Produce.] The climate is said to be much colder in this country, than in the north, under the same parallels of latitude; which is imputed to its being in the vicinity of the Andes, which pass through it, being covered with eternal snow. It is almost impossible to say what the soil would produce, as it is not at all cultivated by the natives. The northern parts are covered with wood, among which is an inexhaustible fund of large timber; but towards the south it is said there is not a single tree large enough to be of use to mechanicks. There are, however, good pastures, which feed incredible numbers of horned cattle and horses, first carried there by the Spaniards, and now increased in an amazing degree.

Rivers.] Rio Colorado is a river, which enters the Atlantick a little N. of lat. 40° S. It admits vessels drawing 6 or 7 feet of water. On its banks reside the natives, who trade with the Spaniards of Rio Negro.

Rio Negro is a fresh river entering the ocean from the west, lat. 41° 40′ S. On the bar is 10 feet of water. Near the mouth of the river is a Spanish garrison of 50 men. Upon the river is a settlement of 40 families from Spain. This is the only settlement of Europeans, garrisons excepted, in all Patagonia. Near the banks of this river are groves of trees, a curiosity in this country.

Bays.] Port St. Joseph, a small bay which extends 6 or 7 miles into the country from the south side of St. Fondo Bay. Here is a fort and garrison of 30 men. The Indians in the vicinity are hostile to the Spaniards. The soldiers dare not go after water without their arms. In this neighbourhood are large salt ponds whence the inhabitants of La Plata are supplied with salt.

Port Peninsula, lat. 42° 36′ is dangerous to enter on account of the sand banks and the violence of the tide. The peninsula is 30 miles over, level, and covered with grass, but without tree or shrub. Here are guanas, which produce a wool fine as silk, and might be a valuable acquisition to our farmers. Their flesh is good.

Camerones Bay has no good harbour, nor is there any river as laid down in the English maps.

Hell Gate harbour, lat. 45° 25′, is a good harbour.

Puerto Deseada, lat. 47° 50′, is a good harbour, the entrance is narrow, but deep. Two miles from the mouth of the harbour, on the north side, is a Spanish garrison of 20 or 30 men. Their buildings are enclosed by a high stone wall. These are the only Europeans found between Fort St. Joseph, lat. 42° 30′, and Cape Horn. Near the garrison is an encampment of Indians somewhat civilized. This is a barren desolate region.

Capes.] Cape Matas is the S. cape of Camerones bay, latitude 45. Near this cape lie several small islands. One of them is Ship Island, which is about 2 miles long, has a good harbour on the S. W. side. Near the anchoring place is a spring of water, which affords 150 gallons in a day. There are some goats on the island. Opposite the island is a large bay, near the bottom of which is a deep creek, called James' harbour, secure from every wind. Near the head of the creek is plenty of fish. The vicinity is barren and hilly, and 200 miles from any European settlements.

Inhabitants.] Patagonia is inhabited by a variety of Indian tribes, among which are the Patagons, from whom the country takes its name; the Pampas and the Cossores. They all live upon fish and game, and what the earth produces spontaneously. Their huts are thatched, and, notwithstanding the rigour of the climate, they wear no other clothes than a mantle made of seal skin, or the skin of some beast, and that they throw off when they are in action. They are exceedingly hardy, brave and active, making use of their arms, which are bows and arrows headed with flints, with amazing dexterity. They always bury their dead on the eastern shores, looking towards the country of their fathers. They are supposed to have immigrated here from Africa. [*Pinkerton.*]

Magellan, who first discovered the straits that bear his name, and after him commodore Biron, have reported, that there exists, in these regions, a race of giants; but others, who have sailed this way, contradict the report. Upon the whole, we may conclude that this story is like that of the female republick of Amazons.

The Spaniards once built a fort upon the straits, and left a garrison in it to prevent any other European nation passing that way into the Pacifick Ocean; but most of the men perished by hunger, whence the place obtained the name of Port Famine; and since that fatal event, no nation has attempted to plant colonies in Patagonia. As to the religion or government of these savages, we have no certain information. Some have reported, that these people believe in invisible powers, both good and evil; and that they pay a tribute of gratitude to the one, and deprecate the wrath and vengeance of the other.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS UPON SOUTH-AMERICA.

WE have now traversed the several provinces of that extensive region, which is comprehended between the Isthmus of Darien and the fifty-fourth degree of south latitude. We have taken a cursory view of the rivers, the soil, the climate, the productions, the commerce, the inhabitants, &c. It only remains now, that we should make such observations as naturally occur upon the subject.

The history of Columbus, together with his bold and adventurous actions in the discovery of this country, are sufficiently known to all who have paid any attention to history. His elevated mind suggested to him ideas superior to those of any other man of his age, and his aspiring genius prompted him to make greater and more noble efforts for new discoveries. He crossed the extensive Atlantick, and brought to view a world unheard of by the people of the ancient hemisphere. This excited an enterprizing, avaricious spirit among the inhabitants of Europe; and they flocked to America for the purposes of carnage and plunder. Accordingly, a scene of barbarity has been acted, of which South-America has been the principal theatre, which, though probably exaggerated, shocks the human mind, and almost staggers belief. No sooner had the Spaniards set foot upon the American continent, than they laid claim to the soil, to the mines, and to the services of the natives, wherever they came. Countries were invaded, kingdoms were overturned, innocence was attacked, and happiness had no asylum. Despotism and cruelty with all their terrible scourges attended their advances in very part. They went forth, they conquered, they ravaged, they destroyed. No deceit, no cruelty was too great to be made use of, to satisfy their avarice. Justice was disregarded, and mercy formed no part of the character of these inhuman conquerors. They were intent only on the prosecution of schemes most degrading and most scandalous to the human character. In South-America, the kingdoms of Terra Firma, of Peru, of Chili, of Paraguay, of Brazil, and and of Guiana, successively fell a sacrifice to their vicious ambition.*

The height of the most elevated point in the Pyrenees is, according to Mr. Cassini, 6,646 feet. The height of the mountain Gemmi, in the canton of Berne, is 10,110 feet. The height of the Peak of Teneriffe is 13,178 feet. The height of the Chimborazo, the most elevated point of the Andes, is 20,280 feet. Upon comparison, the highest part of the Andes is 7,102 feet higher than the Peak of Teneriffe, the most elevated mountain known in the ancient hemisphere.

* The reader will find an interesting account of these conquests in Dr. Robertson's History of South-America.

WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

BETWEEN North and South-America, lie a multitude of islands, which are called the West-Indies, and which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, viz. Great-Britain, Spain, France, Holland and Denmark, as follows:*

The BRITISH claim

Jamaica,	St. Vincent,
Barbadoes,	Nevis,
St. Christopher's,	Montserrat,
Antigua,	Barbuda,
Grenada, and the Grenadines,	Anguilla,
Dominica,	Bermudas,
	The Bahama Islands.

SPAIN claims

Cuba,	Margaretta,
Porto Rico,	Juan Fernandes, in the Pacifick Ocean.
Trinidad,	

The FRENCH claim

St. Domingo,	St. Bartholomew, Deseada and Marigalante,
Martinico,	Tobago.
Guadaloupe,	
St. Lucia,	

The DUTCH claim

The Islands of St. Eustatia,	Curassou, or Curacoa,
	Saba.

DENMARK claims

The Islands of St. Croix,	St. Thomas, and St. John's.

The climate in all the West-India Islands is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropicks, and the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about 30 degrees to the south, they would be continually subjected to an extreme and intolerable heat, if the trade winds, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner, as to enable them to attend their

* The islands were distributed among these powers of Europe as above mentioned, before the late European wars, in the course of which changes have taken place, which are not yet definitively settled. They are continually changing masters.

concerns even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

By the same remarkable providence in the disposing of things, it is that when the sun has made a great progress towards the tropick of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, which shield them from his direct beams; and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought, which commonly prevails from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West-Indies are like floods of water, poured from the clouds with prodigious impetuosity; the rivers suddenly rise; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low country is under water.* Hence it is, that the rivers which have their source within the tropicks, swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; but so mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and scorched up with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reason uninhabitable; when, in reality, some of the largest rivers of the world have their course within its limits, and the moisture is one of the greatest inconveniences of the climate in several places.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West-Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no frosts, no snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hail stones very great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moisture, which alone does not seem to be a sufficient cause, or to a greater quantity of a sulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds that are subject to the action of such causes, rust and canker in a very short time; and this cause, perhaps as much as the heat itself, contributes to make the climate of the West-Indies unfriendly and unpleasant to a European constitution.

It is the rainy seasons (principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September) that they are assaulted by hurricanes, the most terrible calamity to which they are subject (as well as the people in the East-Indies) from the climate; this destroys at a stroke, the labours of many years, and prostrates the most exalted hopes of the planter, and at the moment when he thinks himself out of danger. It is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance which the elements can assemble, that is terrible, and destructive. First, they see as a prelude to the ensuing havock, whole fields of sugar canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country. The strongest trees of the forest are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; their wind-mills are swept away in a moment; their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and stills of several hundred weight are wrenched from the ground and battered to pieces;

* See Wafer's journey across the Isthmus of Darien.

their houses are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blast; whilst the rain, which in an hour raises the water to five feet, rushes in upon them with an irresistible violence.

The grand staple commodity of the West-Indies is sugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China, in very early times, from whence was derived the first knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not determined, whether the cane, from which this substance is taken, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but, however that matter may be, in the beginning they made the most, as they still do the best, sugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the sugar cane is the most lively sweet in nature; which, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses, rum is distilled, and from the scummings of the sugar a meaner spirit is procured. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make a very good provender for their cattle; and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

They compute ,that, when things are well managed, the rum and molasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However, a man cannot begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least 5,000l.

The quantity of rum and molasses exported from all the British West-India Islands, in 1787, 1788 and 1789, to all parts, was, accurately as follows:

	Gallons.		Gallons.	
1787 Rum	5,496,147	of which	1,160,155	came to the United States
Molasses	30,580	do.	4,200	do.
1788 Rum	6,770,332	do.	1,541,093	do.
Molasses	28,812	do.	3,928	do.
1789 Rum	9,492,177	do.	1,485,461	do.
Molasses	21,192	do.	1,000	do.*

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it; some are subsisted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork, a day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12l. annually. The price of men negroes, upon their first arrival, is from

* Mr. Baillie, in his debate on the motion for the abolition of the slave trade, April, 1792, asserts—that the exports and imports to and from the West-India Islands and Africa, amount annually to 10,000 cool. sterling, which gives employment to 300,000 tons of shipping, and about 25,000 seamen.

30 to 36l. women and grown boys 50s. less; but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands, generally bring above 40l. upon an average one with another; and there are instances of a single negro man, expert in the business, bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

The islands of the West-Indies lie in the form of a bow, or semicircle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida north, to the river Oronoko, in the main continent of South-America. Some call them the Carribees, from the first inhabitants; though this is a term that most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands. Sailors distinguish them into the Windward and Leeward islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena, or New-Spain and Porto Bello. The geographical tables and maps distinguish them into great and little Antilles.

BRITISH WEST-INDIES.

JAMAICA.

THIS is the finest of the British West-India islands, situated in the Atlantick Ocean, 4,000 miles south-west of England, and 90 miles west of Hispaniola. Its centre is in 18° 12′ N. lat. and 76° 45′ W. lon. from Lon. Its length is 150 miles; its breadth, on a medium, about 40 miles, giving a surface (allowing nothing for its unevenness) of 3,840,000 acres; of which, in November, 1789, no more than 1,907,589 had been taken up by grants from the crown; and of these but a little more than 1,000,000 was in cultivation in 1789, viz, 710 sugar plantations, averaging 900 acres each, making, in the whole, 639,000 acres; 400 breeding farms or *pens*, of 700 acres each, which gives 280,000; and half this last number of acres is devoted to the minor productions of the island, such as cotton, coffee, pimento, ginger, provisions, &c. making together 1,059,000 acres, leaving nearly 3,000,000 acres an unimproved, unproductive wilderness, of which not more than one fourth part is supposed to be fit for any kind of profitable cultivation, great part of the interior country being inaccessible.*

Divisions and Population.] Jamaica is divided as follows:

Counties.	Parishes.	Towns and Villages.	Acres.	Chief Towns.
Middlesex,	8	14	1,305,235	SPANISHTOWN,
Surry,	7	10	672,616	Kingston,
Cornwall,	5	9	1,512,149	Savanna-la-Mar, Montego Bay.
Total, Three.	20	33	3,500,000	

* Edward's History of the West-Indies, Vol. I, article Jamaica.

The inhabitants are as follows, viz.

Whites	30,000
Negro Slaves	250,000*
Freed Negroes	10,000
Maroons	1,400
Total	291,400

This island is intersected with a ridge of steep rocks, tumbled, by the frequent earthquakes, in a stupendous manner upon one another. From the rocks issue a vast number of small rivers of pure wholesome water, which fall down in cataracts, and, together with the stupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a most delightful landscape. "No part of the West-Indies that I have seen," says Edwards, "abounds with so many delicious streams." The rivers on this island are reckoned at 100, none of which are deep enough to be navigated by sea vessels. On each side of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. On these, coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies and plains between these ridges are level, and the soil is prodigiously fertile.

The longest day in summer is about 13 hours, and the shortest in winter about 11; but the most usual divisions of the seasons in the West-Indies are into the dry and wet seasons. The air of this island is, in many places, excessively hot, and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea breezes which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable; and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure and cooling. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness; and the lightning in these violent storms frequently does great damage. In February or March they expect earthquakes. During the months of May and October the rains are extremely violent and continue sometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains not far from Spanishtown, a hot bath of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly ache, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greatest and most valuable production of this island. In 1787, 824,706cwt. of this article was exported to Great-Britain, and in 1790, 1,185,519cwt. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to a great extent. It produces also ginger and the pimento, or as it is called, Jamaica pepper, and vulgarly allspice; the wild cinnamon tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the machineel, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worst poisons in nature: the mahogany, and of the most valuable quality; but this wood begins to be scarce, and of late is very dear. Lignumvitæ, dog-wood, iron-wood, pigeon-wood, green-heart, braziletto, and bully trees; most of which sink in water, and are of a compactness and

* Of these, 128,798 are employed in the cultivation and manufacture of sugar.

impenetrability inconceivable by an inhabitant of the northern states, or of Europe. Excellent cedars of a large size and durable; the cabbage-tree remarkable for the hardness of its wood, which, when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil much esteemed by the savages, both in food and medicine; the soap tree, whose berries answer for all purposes of washing; the mangrove olive bark, useful to tanners; the fustick and red-wood to the diers; and lately the logwood.

The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated, and the cotton tree is still so. They have maize or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, with a variety of roots. Fruits grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, custard apples, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, soursops, papas, pine apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and several kinds of berries; also garden stuffs in great plenty, and good. The publick botanical garden of this island contains a great variety of valuable foreign plants, among which is the true Ceylon cinnamon, mango tree, bread fruit, Chinese hemp, palm, Otaheite plum, sago, tallow tree, gum Arabick, paper mulberry, from which paper and cloth are made, tea plant, Chinese olive, &c.* The cattle bred on this island are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have plenty of hogs; many plantations have hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceedingly sweet and delicate. Their horses are small, mettlesome and hardy, and when well made, generally sell for 30 or 40l. sterling. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and sea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame; parrots, parroquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea hens, geese, ducks, and turkies, the humming bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numberless adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and gallawasp; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eat into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag as soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body; they pick them out with a needle, or the point of a penknife, taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh to the very bone.

Spanishtown, or St. Jago-de-la-Vega, in the county of Middlesex, is the capital of Jamaica. It is situated on the banks of the river *Cobre*, about six miles from the sea, and contains 5 or 600 houses, and about 5,000 inhabitants, including free people of colour. It is the residence of the governour or commander in chief, who is accommodated with a magnificent palace. Here the legislature sits, and the court of chancery and the supreme judicial courts are held.

* A catalogue of these plants is given in Edwards' History of the West-Indies, vol. I. p. 98—211.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It stood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The convenience of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thousand sail of large ships, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload with the greatest ease, weighed so much with the inhabitants, that they chose to build their capital on this spot, though the place was a hot dry sand, and produced none of the necessaries of life, not even fresh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the resort of pirates, made it a place of great consideration. These pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with a desperate bravery, and then spent their fortune in this capital, with as inconsiderate dissipation. About the year 1692, no place for its size could be compared to this town for trade, wealth and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to its foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, so as to leave, in one quarter, not even the smallest vestige remaining. In two minutes the earth opened and swallowed up nine tenths of the houses, and 2,000 people. The water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch the beams and rafters of houses, and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were cast away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of sinking houses, and did not overset, but afforded a retreat to some hundreds of people, who saved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quick in some places, and he saw several people sink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads just above ground, and were squeezed to death. At Savanna-la-Mar, above a thousand acres were sunk, with the houses and people in them; the place appeared for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts, mountains were split; and at one place a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a second time, ten years after, destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1782, was it laid in rubbish by a hurricane, the most terrible on record. Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants therefore resolved to forsake it forever, and to reside at the opposite bay, where they built Kingston, which is now the capital of this island. It consists of upwards of 1,700 houses, many of them handsomely built, and in the taste of these islands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticoes, and every convenience for a comfortable habitation in that climate. The number of inhabitants of all colours, in 1788, was 26,178, of whom 6,539 only were white; the others were free people of colour, 3,280, and slaves 16,659.

On the third of October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almost overwhelmed the little sea-port town of Savanna-la-Mar, in Cornwall county, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houses were left standing, and a great number of people were killed. Much

damage was also done and many lives lost, in other parts of the island. This town has since been rebuilt, and contained, in 1791, 60 or 70 houses. Montego Bay is a flourishing, opulent town, containing about 230 houses, and 600 white inhabitants. The number of top-sail vessels which clear annually at this port is about 150; of which 70 are capital ships.

The whole product of the island may be reduced to these heads. *First*, sugars, of which were exported, in 1787, 824,706cwt.; 1788, 1,124,017cwt.; 1789, 1,236,603cwt.; 1790, 1,185,519cwt. Most of this goes to Great-Britain, Ireland, the British American colonies, and some part of it into the United States, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, staves, planks, pitch and tar, which they have from thence. *Second*, rum, of which they exported 2,543,063 gallons in the year 1787, to the same places and to Africa, annually. The rum of this island is generally esteemed the best, and is the most used in Great-Britain. *Third*, molasses, in which they formerly made their remittances for the produce of the grand staple, the sugar cane. According to the late testimony of a respectable planter in Jamaica, that island hath 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of sugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. *Fourth*, cotton, of which they sent out nearly 2,000,000 pounds in 1787. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable; but some cocoa and coffee are exported, with a considerable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for diers and apothecaries, sweetmeats, mahogany and machineel planks. But some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the Spanish continent of New-Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they carry on a vast and profitable trade in negroes and all kinds of European goods. The trade of this island, in 1787, employed 400 vessels, containing 78,862 tons, navigated by 8,845 men. The amount of exports, the same year, consisting of sugar, rum, molasses, pimento, coffee, cotton, indigo, ginger, mahogany, logwood, &c. was £2,136,442: 17: 3. The imports for this year, consisting of British and Irish manufactures, foreign merchandize, and salted provisions from Great-Britain and Ireland; negroes from Africa; salted fish, 20,000 quintals, from the British American colonies; Indian corn, flour, rice, lumber, staves, &c. from the United states, (to the value of £90,000 sterling) and wines, &c. from Madeira and Teneriffe, to the amount of £1,584,518: 14: 4 sterling.

This island was originally a part of the Spanish empire in America. Several descents had been made upon it by the English, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year that Jamaica was reduced under the British dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a squadron under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spanish island of Hispaniola, but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital, St. Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Ever since, it has been subject to the English, and the government of it is one of the richest places next to that of

Ireland, in the disposal of the crown, the standing salary being 2,500l. per annum, and the assembly commonly voting the governour as much more: which, with the other perquisites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000l. per annum.

BARBADOES.

THIS island, the most easterly of all the Carribbees, is situated in 59° W. lon. from London, and 13° 10′ N. latitude. It is 21 miles in length and 14 in breadth, containing 106,470 acres of land, most of which are under cultivation.

Barbadoes is divided into five districts, and eleven parishes, and contains four towns. Bridgtown, the capital, which before the fire of 1766, contained about 1500 houses, chiefly of brick, Ostines or Charlestown, St. James', (formerly called the Hole) and Speight'stown. The governour, whose income is said to be £5,000 sterling a year, resides at Bridgtown. When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, it had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled, even by savages. There was no kind of beasts, no fruit, no herb nor root, fit for supporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was so good and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortunes in England, resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable support; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably well. These prospects, together with the contention between the king and parliament, which had commenced in England, induced many new adventurers to transport themselves to this island. And what is remarkable, 25 years after its first settlement in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian slaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they seized upon all those unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery—a practice which has rendered the Carribbee Indians irreconcileable to the English ever since. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate sugar to great advantage. The number of slaves was, in consequence of their wealth, still augmented; and in 1676, it was supposed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000 whites, make 150,000 on this small spot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world most renowned for numbers.

At this time, Barbadoes employed 400 sail of ships one with another of 150 tons in their trade. Their annual exports in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron water, were about 350,000l. and their circulating cash at home was 200,000l. Such was the increase of population, trade, and wealth, in the course of 50 years. But since that time this island has been much on the decline, which is to be at-

tributed partly to the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly to the other English establishments in the neighbouring isles. Their numbers, in 1786, were 16,167 whites, 838 free people of colour, and 62,115 negroes. Their commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent. In 1787, they exported to Great-Britain upwards of 130,000cwt. of sugar, and in 1790, but about 113,000cwt. They have a college, founded and well endowed by Col. Codrington, who was a native of this island. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fires and the plague. On the tenth of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane occasioned vast devastation in Barbadoes; great numbers of houses were destroyed; not one house in the island was wholly free from damage, many persons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and great numbers were driven into the sea, and there perished.

St. CHRISTOPHER's.

THIS island, commonly called by the sailors St. Kitt's, is situated in 62 degrees west longitude, and 17° N. latitude, about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is 20 miles long and 7 broad; containing about 143,726 acres; of which 17,000 are appropriated to the growth of sugar, and 4000 to pasturage. It is divided into 9 parishes, and has 4 towns, of which Basseterre is the principal, and capital of the island. This town and Sandy Point are ports of entry, and are fortified. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention; and, in 1626, it was settled by the French and English conjunctly; but entirely ceded to the latter by the peace of Utrecht. Besides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it produced, in 1787, 231,397cwt. of sugar, and in 1790, but about 113,000cwt. It is computed that this island contains 4,000 whites and 26,000 negroes; and 300 blacks and mulattoes of free condition. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but restored to England by the treaty of 1783.

ANTIGUA,

SITUATED in 61° W. lon. and 17° N. lat. is of a circular form, about 50 miles in circumference. It contains 59,838 acres, of which 34,000 are appropriated to the growth of sugar, and pasturage annexed. Its other principal staples are cotton and tobacco. This island, which was formerly thought useless, has now got the start of the rest. It has one of the best harbours in the West-Indies; and its capital, St. John's, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary seat of the governour of the Leeward Islands. Antigua is divided into six parishes, and contained, in 1774, 2,590 whites, and 37,808 slaves. In 1787, 254,706cwt. of sugar was sent from this island to Great-Britain; and in 1790, only 65,022cwt.

GRENADA, AND THE GRENADINES.

GRENADA was discovered by, and received its name from Christopher Columbus, in his third voyage, in the year 1498. It is situated in 12° N. lat. and 62° W. lon. about 30 leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of Andalusia, or the Spanish Main. This island is said to be 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth, containing about 80,000 acres, 50,000 of which are cultivated. The face of the country is mountainous, but experience has proved, that the soil is very proper for sugar, coffee, tobacco and indigo; and indeed every tropical production; and has the appearance of becoming as flourishing a colony as any in the West-Indies, of its dimensions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the island, supplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, some of which may be fortified with great advantage, which render it very convenient for shipping, and has the happiness of not being subject to hurricanes. This island is divided into six parishes, and its chief dependency, *Cariacou*, forms a seventh parish. It contained, in 1785, 23,926 negroes; and in 1787, the number of free people of colour was 1,115, and of white inhabitants only about 1,000. The capital of Grenada is St. George, situated on a spacious bay, on the south-west part of the island, which bay forms one of the safest and most convenient harbours for shipping in the English West-Indies. It has been lately fortified at a great expense. Grenada has two ports of entry, with separate establishments, viz. one at St. George, the capital, and one at Grenville Bay, a town and harbour on the east or windward side of the island. This island was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which this handful of Carribbees defended themselves with the most resolute bravery. In the last war but one, when Grenada was attacked by the English, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were so amazed at the reduction of Gaudaloupe and Martinico, that they lost all spirit, and surrendered without making the least opposition; and the full property of this island, together with the small islands on the north, called the Grenadines, which yield the same produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great-Britain, by the treaty of Paris, in 1763. But in July, 1779, the French made themselves masters of this island, though it was restored to Great-Britain by the treaty of 1783. In 1787, 172,880cwt. of sugar was exported from these islands to Great-Britain, and in 1790, 191,615cwt. In 1776, the exports from Grenada, and its dependencies, consisting of sugars, rum, coffee, cocoa, cotton, indigo, and some smaller articles, amounted to £600,000 sterling. Upwards of 23,000,000lbs. of sugar were shipped this year, which was produced from 106 plantations, worked by 18,293 negroes only. The exports since have greatly decreased.

Cariacou and Isle Ronde are two of the Grenadines, dependent on the Grenada government; the former contains 6,913 acres of land, in general fertile and well cultivated, producing, in seasonable years, a million pounds of cotton for exportation; the latter contains about

500 acres of excellent land, which are wholly applied to pasturage and the cultivation of cotton.

DOMINICA,

SITUATED in 16° N. lat. and in 62° W. lon. lies about half way between Gaudaloupe and Martinico. It is 29 miles in length, and 16 in breadth, containing 186,436 acres, divided into ten parishes. It obtained its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. Roseau, the capital, is in St. George's parish, about, 20 miles from Prince Rupert's Bay, on the S. W. side of the island. It contains about 500 houses, exclusive of the negroes' cottages. Before its capture by the French, it contained upwards of 1,000. The soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of cotton than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West-Indies, and the island is well supplied with good water, there being upwards of 30 fine rivers, besides rivulets, in the island. By the peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded to the English; but they have derived little advantage from this conquest, the island being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Charaibes, who being expelled their own settlements, have taken refuge here. But, on account of its situation between the principal French islands, and Prince Rupert's Bay, being one of the most capacious in the West-Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itself, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but it was restored again to Great-Britain by the peace of 1783. The number of white inhabitants, in 1788, was 1,236; free negroes, 445; slaves, 14,067; and about 20 families of the Charaibes. It exported to Great-Britain, in 1790, upwards of 50,000cwt. of sugar, and upwards of 71,000 in 1787, the produce of 50 plantations. The amount of exports, in 1787, consisting of sugar, rum, coffee, molasses, cocoa, indigo, cotton, and ginger, amounted to £302,987 : 15.

ST. VINCENT,

SITUATED in 13° N. lat. and 61° W. lon. 50 miles north-west of Barbadoes, 30 miles south of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length and 18 in breadth, containing about 84,000 acres, well watered; 23,605 acres are at present possessed by British subjects, and as many more by the Charaibes; the rest are incapable of cultivation. The country is very generally mountainous and rugged, but the vallies are fertile in a high degree, the soil being a black mould upon a strong loam, the most proper for the raising of sugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is less cultivated than formerly throughout the West-Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Charaibes, and many here also fugitive, from Barbadoes and the other islands.

The British territory in this island is divided into 5 parishes. Kingston is the capital of the island, and the seat of its government. There are no other towns of consequence. The number of inhabit-

ants, by the last returns, were 1,450 whites, and 11,453 negroes, including 1,400 on the small islands in the neighbourhood of St. Vincent, and dependent on its government, viz. Bequia, containing 3,700 acres; Union, 2,150 acres; Canonane, 1,777 acres; and Mustique, about 1,200 acres.

The Charaibes were treated with so much injustice and barbarity, after this island came into possession of the English, to whom it was ceded by the treaty of peace, in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get possession of it again in 1779; but it was restored to Great-Britain by the treaty of 1783. It sent to Great-Britain, in 1790, 76,747cwt. of sugar. The exports of 1787, consisting of sugar, rum, molasses, coffee, cotton, cocoa, &c. amounted to £186,450: 14: 8 sterling.

TORTOLA

IS the principal of the Virgin Isles; lat. 18° 17′ N. long. 64° W. Its exports are sugar, rum and cotton. It carries on considerable trade with the United States. The island is 30 miles long, 8 broad, the whole under high cultivation, and though mountainous, it is very fertile. From its hills, St. Croix, St. John's, and St. Thomas, appear in view. It is one of the most healthy places in the West-Indies, and has a large and safe harbour. There are two towns, Sandy Bay and Roadtown, well defended by fortifications. The inhabitants depend entirely on the clouds for water.

NEVIS.

THIS beautiful island is nothing more than a single mountain, rising like a cone, in an easy ascent from the sea; the circumference of its base does not exceed 24 miles. It is well watered, and in general fertile, but stony. About 4,000 acres of cane are cultivated on this island, yielding about 16cwt. an acre. The island is divided into 3 parishes. Charlestown is the seat of government, and a port of entry. The number of white inhabitants does not exceed 600, while the negroes amount to 10,000. The English first established themselves in this island in the year 1628. It was taken by the French in 1782, but was restored the following year.

MONTSERRAT

IS about nine miles long and as many broad, and is supposed to contain about 30,000 acres of land, almost two thirds of which are mountainous and very barren. About 6,000 acres are appropriated to the cultivation of sugar; for cotton, provisions and pasturage, about 2,000 each. Its average crop, from 1784 to 1788, was 2,737 hogsheads of sugar of 16cwt. 1,107 puncheons of rum, and 275 bales of cotton.

BARBUDA,

SITUATED 17° 49′ N. lat. 61° 50′ W. lon. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has a good road for shipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1,500.

ANGUILLA,

SITUATED in 18° N. lat. 60 miles N. W. of St. Christopher's, is about 50 miles long, and 10 broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry and feeding of cattle.

BERMUDAS, OR SOMMERS' ISLANDS.

THESE received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called Sommers' Islands, from Sir George Sommers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks, in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situated at a vast distance from any continent, in 32° N. latitude, and in 65° W. longitude. Their distance from the Madeiras is about 1,200 leagues, and from Carolina 300. They are nearly in the form of a shepherd's crook; the main island is about 16 miles in length, and from one to two in breadth. The parish of St. George's is an island to the eastward of the main land, on which stands the town of St. George's, containing about 500 houses. Contiguous to this is the island of St. David's, which supplies the town with butter, milk, vegetables, poultry, and fresh meat. In the bosom of the crook, lie a vast number of small islands uninhabited. The island is rocky, and the ground hilly. In the main road a sulkey may pass; and even there in many places, with difficulty; but turn to the right or left, and it is passable only on horseback. The air is healthy; a continual spring prevails. Cedars, mantled in green, always adorn the hills. The pasture ground is ever verdant; the gardens ever in bloom. Most of the productions of the West-Indies might here be cultivated. The houses are built of a soft stone, which is sawn like timber; when exposed to the weather, and washed with lime, it becomes hard. The houses are white as snow; which beheld from an eminence, contrasted with the greenness of the cedars and pasture ground, and the multitude of islands full in view, realize what the poets have feigned concerning the Elysian fields. The inhabitants are numerous; the whole island is a continued village; no less, perhaps than 15 or 20,000, are collected on this small spot. The blacks are twice as numerous as the whites. Happy for the country, were the colour unknown among

them. The Bermudians are chiefly sea faring people ; few of the men are ever at home ; 3 or 400 go annually to Turk's Island to rake salt, which is carried to America for provisions, or sold to such as may call at Turk's Island, for cash.

The common food of the Bermudians is coffee, fish of different kinds, a sweet potatoe, Indian corn, and American flour. Their water is rain, preserved in cisterns : the general drink is *grog*. The men are amphibious animals ; from their being a yard long they swim out of their depth ; and fishing is the favourite amusement when grown up. The government is conducted under a governour named by the crown of England, a council and general assembly. The established religion is episcopacy. There are nine churches ; three clergymen have the charge of those nine. There is one presbyterian church. A regard for religion is not the characteristick of the Bermudians. They seldom go to church unless it be to attend a funeral, or get their children baptized, or to hear a stranger.*

LUCAY's, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.

THE Bahamas are situated between 22 and 27 degrees N. lat. and 73 and 81 degrees W. lon. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to Cuba, and are said to be 500 in number, some of them only rocks, but twelve of them are large and fertile ; all are, however, uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles east of the Floridas ; though some others are larger and more fertile on which the English have plantations.

These islands were the first fruits of Columbus's discoveries ; but they were not known to the English till 1667. The isle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to send out Captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to dislodge the pirates, and for making a settlement. This the captain effected ; a fort was erected, and an independent company was stationed in the island. Ever since this last settlement, these islands have been improving, though they advance but slowly. In time of war, people gain considerably by the prizes condemned there ; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves. The Spaniards and Americans captured these islands during the last war ; but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Augustine, April 7th, 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

THOUGH these are not among the West-India Islands, we shall mention them in this place. They lie in the 52d degree of south latitude, near the Straits of Magellan, at the utmost extremity of South America.

* The foregoing description of these islands was sent the author by an intelligent gentleman, who had resided a number of years in Bermuda.

Falkland Islands were first discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins, in 1594; the principal of which he named Hawkins' Maidenland, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. The present English name Falkland was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1689, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into maps. Captain M'Bride, who visited them in 1766, thus describes them. "We found, says he, a mass of islands and broken lands, of which the soil was nothing but a bog, with no better prospect than that of barren mountains, beaten by storms almost perpetual. Yet this is summer; and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, those who lie but two cables length from the shore, must pass weeks without any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir trees, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away; but goats, sheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increase as in other places. Geese of a fishy taste, snipes, foxes, sea-lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and in the summer months, wild celery and sorrel, are the natural luxuries of these islands. But though the soil be barren, and the sea tempestuous, an English settlement was made here, of which they were dispossessed by the Spaniards in 1770.

SPANISH WEST-INDIES.

CUBA.

THE island of Cuba, the most valuable of all the Spanish West-Indies, is situated between 20° and 23° 30′ N. lat. and between 74° and 85° 15′ W. lon. 100 miles to the south of Cape Florida, and 75 miles north of Jamaica, and is nearly 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the island from east to west; but the land near the sea is in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island, the key of the West-Indies, is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all the commodities known in the West-Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, mastick and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar; but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the same cause that this large island does not produce, including all its commodities, so much for exportation as the small island of Antigua. Not a hundredth part of the island is yet cleared. The principal part of the plantations are on the beautiful plains of Havannah, and are cultivated by about 25,000 slaves. The other inhabitants on this island amount to about 30,000.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence to navigation; but there are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns; as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situated and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, with a great number of churches and convents. It was taken however, by the English in the year 1762, but restored in the subsequent treaty of peace. Besides these, there is also Cumberland harbour and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town, thirty miles east of the Havannah.

PORTO RICO,

SITUATED between 64 and 67 degrees W. longitude, and in 18° N. latitude, lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, vallies and plains; and is very fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers; but the island is unhealthy in the rainy seasons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards settled here; but there is no longer any considerable quantity of this metal found in it.

In 1778, this island contained 80,660 inhabitants, of which only 6,530 were slaves. There were then reckoned upon the island 77,384 head of horned cattle, 23,195 horses, 1,515 mules, 49,058 head of small cattle; 5,861 plantations, yielding 2,737 quintals of sugar, 1,163 quintals of cotton, 19,556 quintals of rice, 15,216 quintals of maize, 7,458 quintals of tobacco, 9,860 quintals of molasses.

Porto Rico, the capital town, stands in a little island on the north side, forming a capacious harbour, defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the Earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the king of Spain's subjects.

Virgin Islands, situated at the east end of Porto Rico, are extremely small.

TRINIDAD,

SITUATED between 59 and 62 degrees W. longitude, and in 10 degrees N. latitude, lies between the island Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the Straits of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad, and is an unhealthy but fruitful spot, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, a variety of fruit, and some cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island, and extorted money from the inhabitants. By the late preliminaries of peace between Great-Britain and France, this island was ceded to the former.

MARGARETTA,

SITUATED in 64° W. lon. and 11° 30′ N. lat. separated from the northern coast of New-Andalusia, in Terra Firma, by a strait of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a most agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, maize and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fishery on its coast.

There are many other small islands in these seas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We shall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the first Spanish island of any importance is Chiloe, on the coast of Chili, which has a governour, and some harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES,

LIES in 83° W. lon. and 33° S. lat. 300 miles west of Chili. This island is uninhabited; but having some good harbours, it is found extremly convenient for the English cruisers to touch at and water. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems, one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived for some years, until he was discovered by Captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709. When taken up, he had almost forgotten his native language. He was dressed in goats' skins, and would drink nothing but water. During his abode in this island, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught 30 years after by lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect and majestick beards discovered strong symptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is said to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But that writer, by the help of those papers, and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; so that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigested for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but those hints, which might give rise to his own celebrated performance.

FRENCH WEST-INDIES.

THE French were among the last nations who made settlements in the West-Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

We shall now proceed to notice the French West-India Islands, beginning with the large and important one of

HISPANIOLA, OR ST. DOMINGO.*

THIS island was at first possessed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the most considerable part of it was for many years in the hands of the French; and the remainder of the island was ceded to this nation, by Spain, in the treaty of 1795.

It is situated between the 17th and 21st degrees of north latitude and the 67th and 74th of west longitude, lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hispaniola was first discovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at least one million. But such was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to so infamous a height did they carry their oppression of the poor natives, that they were reduced to 60,000 in the space of 15 years. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods and rivers; and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava root. The European cattle are so multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South-America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks, they discovered formerly silver and gold. The mines, however, are not now worked. The north-west parts consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles mentioned, in vast abundance. This indeed is the best and most fruitful part of the best and most fertile island in the West-Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The French part of St. Domingo, containing 2,500,000 acres, of which 1,500,000 were under high cultivation in 1789, was then divided into 10 Jurisdictions, which were subdivided into 52 Parishes, as follows, viz.

	Jurisdictions.	No. Parishes.		Jurisdictions.	No. Parishes.
West.	Port au Prince	6	North.	Cape Francois	13
	St. Mark	4		Fort Dauphin	5
	Le Petit Goave	5		Port de Paix	7
	Jeremie	2	South.	Les Cayes	4
				St. Louis	3
				Jacmel	3

Before the late revolution, there were in these parishes about 42,000 white people, 44,000 free people of colour, and 600,000 slaves. Other accounts make them considerably less; the above, however, is from good authority.

The number of deaths, during the year 1789, according to the bills of mortality, amounted to 7,121

The number of births the same year 4,232

The deaths exceeded the births 2,889

* The people of colour in this island, which they call *Hayti*, have declared themselves independent and established a government for themselves; but as the state of this island is still revolutionary, we describe it as it was before the revolution.

This result will be the less astonishing, when it is considered, that in the years 1787 and 1788, there had been imported into the colony nearly 60,000 new negroes.

The following valuable table of exports from the French part of St. Domingo, is taken from a printed copy, published under authority, and furnished by an obliging correspondent.

RECAPITULATION OF WARES

Exported from the several Districts belonging to France in ST. DOMINGO, from January 1, 1789, to December 31, of the same year.

Departments.	Sugar. White.	Sugar. Brown.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Indigo.	Other articles, as, tanned hides, molasses, spirits, &c. Tot. value in livres	Total value of duties on exportation.	
	lb.	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*		*Dols.*	*Cts.*
Port au Prince	2,497,321	44,716,226	17,829,424	1,878,999	137,951	8,248½	189,945	46
Cape Francois	31,187,636	7,267,531	32,545,524	269,240	245,177	21,789⅞	253,590	37
Fort Dauphin	6,886,550	200,700	1,194,760	3,200	1,710	4,153	35,252	13
Port de Paix	331,900	515,500	1,957,618	35,154	29,181	511	9,407	60
The Mole		7	265,615	26,861	2,823	129	1,250	21
St. Mark	3,065,047	7,931,710	7,041,852	3,250,890	349,819	2,250½	116,974	4
Leogane	895,871	7,079,205	1,932,952	139,887	4,960	689	26,103	70
Petit Goave	27,090	655,187	807,865	50,053	210	71	4,127	97
Jeremie	1,420	247,760	5,440,646	54,786	598	297	13,328	6
Cape Tiburon	1,000	377,800	600,002	13,672	1,088	65	2,465	76
Les Cayes	2,597,666	24,526,050	3,025,604	855,447	169,305	8,256	101,528	85
St. Louis			120,665	19,253	5,751		904	13
Jacmel	27,350	55,624	4,072,702	406,832	10,046	84	15,919	26
Total,	47,516,531	93,573,300	76,835,219	7,004,274	758,628	46,873⅛	770,801	3
						Deduct the value of different acquittances, &c.	638	20
						Remains, Dols.	770,162	83

Port au Prince* is the seat of the French government in this island, in time of peace, and of considerable trade. Though singularly favoured with the east winds, it was long the tomb of the unhappy Europeans, in consequence of the difficulty of obtaining good water. By the exertions of Mr. De Marbois, who resided here about five years, in constructing fountains, publick basons, and airy prisons, the place is become far more healthy and desirable.

Cape Francois exceeds Port au Prince in the value of its productions, the elegance of its buildings and the advantageous situation of its port. It is the governour's residence in time of war.

Fort Dauphin is remarkable for a fountain constructed by the orders of Mr. De Marbois, which cost 10,678 dollars.

The Mole, though inferior by a great deal to Cape Francois and Port au Prince, is the first port in the island for safety in time of war, being by nature and art strongly fortified. Count de Estaing, under whose direction these works were constructed, intended to have established here the seat of the French government ; but notwithstanding the beautifulness and safety of this port, the production of its dependencies were of too little value, to engage his successors to carry his plan into effect ; so that the place is now no more than a garrison. It is considered as the healthiest situation in St. Domingo, by reason of the purity of its springs.

St. Mark, though small, is reckoned the pleasantest town on the island. Its commerce is considerable. It owes a great deal of its embellishments to the attention of Mr. De Marbois, during his administration.

Leogane is an agreeable, pleasant and commercial place.

Petit Goave is the unhealthiest place in the colony, the inhabitants being subject to constant fevers, occasioned by the badness of the waters. Its dependencies, however, are healthy, and are remarkable for the culture of coffee.

Jeremie is celebrated for the excellency of its soil, but particularly, for the culture of coffee.

Les Cayes is a place of considerable trade, yielding abundance of sugar, cotton and coffee.

St. Louis is rather a borough than a town, and yields a small quantity of cotton, coffee and indigo.

Jacmel is remarkable for the goodness of its soil, and the abundant crops of coffee, and is susceptible of a large augmentation.

To these particular observations, we add the following of a more general nature ; " The sugar and indigo plantations were in the flat, the coffee in the mountainous lands. The plantations were for the most part enclosed with live hedges, straight and well dressed ; the dwelling and manufactory houses were built and laid out with great neatness and taste ; every habitation possessed a private hospital to cure its sick negroes, who were parentally dealt with ; the roads were excellent ; and from the general hospitality and cheerfulness of

* The following particular observations concerning these several Departments, were furnished the author by the politeness of a French gentleman, long a resident, in an office of trust, in this island.

its former inhabitants, take it all in all, was one of the most enviable spots on earth. Such was the French part of St. Domingo in 1789; but, alas! it is no more: the destructive ravages of an unrelenting insurrection, of frightful massacres and conflagrations, have laid waste all those beautiful settlements, reduced the buildings to ashes, and laid low in dust or scattered in exile, its wretched inhabitants."

From 1792 to the present time, this whole island has been in a state of awful and desolating convulsions. Dessalines, the black Chief, has declared himself Emperor of Hayti, and St. Domingo may now be considered as an empire of blacks. How long they will be able to maintain their independence in opposition to the arms of Bonaparte, time must declare.

MARTINICO,

WHICH is situated in between 14° and 15° N. lat. and in 61° W. lon. lying about 40° north-west of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length and 30 breadth. The inland part of it is hilly from which are poured out, upon every side, a number of agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich this island in a high degree. The produce of the soil is sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger and such fruits as are found in the neighbouring islands. But sugar is here, as in all the West-India islands, the principal commodity, of which they export a considerable quantity annually. Martinico is the residence of the governour of the French islands in these seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, commodious, and well fortified. In 1794, this island was captured by the British. In 1770, it contained 28 parishes, inhabited by 12,450 white people; 1,814 free blacks or mulattoes; 70,558 slaves, and 443 fugitive negroes.

GUADALOUPE,

SO called by Columbus, from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situated in 16° 20' N. lat. and in 62° W. long. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almost as many south of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry boat. Its soil is equally fertile, and in the same productions with that of Martinico. This island, till the late troubles in the West-Indies, was in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar almost incredible. It was taken by the British in 1794, but was retaken by the French in the close of the same year.

ST. LUCIA,

SITUATED in 14° N. lat. and in 61° W. lon. 80 miles north-west of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received

its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr, St. Lucia. The English first settled on this island in 1637. From this time, they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that this island, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to settle these islands; which by the treaty of peace were yielded up to Great-Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds, with pleasant rivers and well situated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain restrictions. The English made themselves masters of it in 1778; but it was restored again to the French in 1783; and retaken by the English in 1794.

TOBAGO.

THIS island is situated 11° odd minutes, N. lat. 120 miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish Main. It is about 32 miles in length, and 9 in breadth. The climate here is not so hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West-India islands. It has a fruitful soil, capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West-Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and rivers are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kinds of shipping. The value and importance of this island appears from the extensive and formidable armaments sent thither by European powers in support of their different claims. It seems to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their pretensions against both England and France with the most obstinate perseverance. By the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; though by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great-Britain; but in June, 1781, it was taken by the French, and ceded to them by the treaty of 1783; and captured by the English in 1793.

St. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIGALANTE,

ARE three small islands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Christopher's, and are of no great consequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy the British West-India trade. St. Bartholomew is now to be considered as belonging to the crown Sweden, being ceded to it by France, 1785.

DUTCH WEST-INDIES.

ST. EUSTATIUS, OR EUSTATIA,

SITUATED in 17° 29′ N. lat. and 63° 10′ W. lon. and three leagues northwest of St. Christopher's, is only a mountain, about 29 miles in compass, rising out of the sea, like a pyramid, and almost round. But though so small and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch have made it turn to very good account; and it is said to contain 5,000 whites, and 15,000 negroes. The sides of the mountains are laid out in very pretty settlements; but they have neither springs nor rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, for which, however, it is not so well situated; and it has drawn the same advantage from its constant neutrality. But when hostilities were commenced by Great-Britain against Holland, admiral Rodney was sent with a considerable land and sea force against St. Eustatius, which being incapable of any defence, surrendered at discretion, on the 3d of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiscated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and very inconsistent with the humanity and generosity by which the English nation used to be characterized. The reason assigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Eustatius had assisted the United States with naval and other stores. But on the 27th of November, the same year, St. Eustatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the marquis de Bouille, though their force consisted of only three frigates and some small craft, and about 300 men.

CURASSOU,

SITUATED in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 broad. It seems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders should every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting against an unfriendly nature; for the island is not only barren and dependent on the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America; yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largest and by far the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West-Indies. The publick buildings are numerous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kinds of labour are here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and

sugar ; it has besides, good salt works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade, which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ships from Europe touch at this island for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coast for trade, which they force with a strong hand, it being very difficult for the Spanish guarda-coastas to take these vessels ; for they are not only stout ships, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of chosen seamen, deeply interested in the safety of the vessel and the success of the voyage. They have each a share in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the station of the owner, supplied by the merchant upon credit, and at prime cost. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, because every man fights in defence of his own property. Besides this, there is a constant intercourse between this island and the Spanish continent.

Curassou has numerous warehouses always full of the commodities of Europe and the East-Indies. Here are all sorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, silks, ribands, iron utensils, naval and military stores, brandy, the spices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch West-India, which is also their African Company, annually bring three or four cargoes of slaves ; and to this mart the Spaniards themselves come in small vessels, and carry off not only the best of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above sorts of goods ; and the seller has this advantage, that the refuse of warehouses and mercers' shops, and every thing that is grown unfashionable and unsaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well ; every thing being sufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold or silver, coined or in bars, cocoa, vanilla, Jesuit's bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curassou, even in times of peace, is said to be annually worth to the Dutch no less than 500,000l. but in time of war the profit is still greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the West-Indies ; it affords a retreat to ships of all nations, and at the same time refuses none of them arms and ammunition to destroy one another. The intercourse with Spain being then interrupted, the Spanish colonies have scarcely any other market from whence they can be well supplied either with slaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which are brought from the continent of North-America, or exported from Ireland ; so that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this island flourishes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements was originally carried on by the West-India company alone : at present, such ships as go upon that trade, pay two and a half per cent. for their licenses ; the Company, however, reserve to themselves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American islands.

The other islands, BONAIRE and ARUBA, are inconsiderable in themselves, and should be regarded as appendages to Curassou, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions.

The island of SABA, situated at no great distance from St. Eustatius, is small, and hardly deserves to be mentioned.

DANISH WEST-INDIES,

CONTAINING THE ISLANDS OF ST. THOMAS, SANTA CRUZ, AND ST. JOHN'S.

ST. THOMAS is an inconsiderable member of the Chairaibes, situated in 64 degrees W. lon. and 18 degrees N. lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, or SANTA CRUZ, is another small and unhealthy island, lying about 5 leagues east of St. Thomas, 30 miles in length, and 8 where it is broadest. These islands, so long as they remained in the hands of the Danish West-India Company, were ill managed, and of little consequence to the Danes; but that wise and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the Company's stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time the island of St. Thomas, as well as this, has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of 3,000 hogsheads of sugar of 1000lb. each, and other of the West-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale; and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish Main, and return with money in specie or bars, and valuable merchandize. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it has been brought into a state of high cultivation, producing annually between 30 and 40,000 hogsheads of sugar of upwards of 13cwt each. It is inhabited by about 3000 whites and 30,000 slaves.

The Danish policy, in respect to their islands, is wise and deserving of imitation. By an edict of the Danish king, no slaves are to be imported into their islands after this year (1802;) till this period their importation was encouraged by a law operating as a bounty.

A great proportion of the negroes of this island have embraced Christianity under the Moravian missionaries, whose influence has been greatly promotive of the prosperity of this island.

ST. JOHN'S is noted only for its fine harbour, which is said to be sufficient to contain in safety the whole British navy. It has a number of salt ponds, which however, are no evidence of its fertility.

NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

THIS consists of several groups of islands, which are situated beween the eastern coast of Kamtschatka and the western coast of the continent of America.*

Some of these islands are only inhabited occasionally, and for some months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants who constantly reside in them. The inhabitants of these islands are, in general, of a short stature, with strong and robust limbs, but free and supple. They have lank black hair, and little beard, flattish faces, and fair skins. They are for the most part well made, and of strong constitutions, suited to the boisterous climate of their isles.

The Fox islands, one of the groups, are so called from the great number of black, grey and red foxes, with which they abound. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap and a fur coat which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a particoloured bird skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fishing caps, they place a small board like a screen, adorned with the jaw bones of sea bears, and ornamented with glass beads which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing parties they use a much more shewy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of all sorts of sea animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they choose to dress their victuals they make use of a hollow stone; having placed the fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provision intended for keeping is dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts; and for defence they use wooden shields.

The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders. They have neither chiefs nor superior, neither laws nor punishments. They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who, in case of an attack, or defence, mutually help and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always pretend to be of the same race; and every person

* Mr. Coxe observes, that, "the first project for making discoveries in that tempestous sea which lies between Kamtschatka and America, was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expense of the crown; but when it was discovered that the islands in that sea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in similar expeditions; and within a period of ten years, more important discoveries were made by these individuals, at their own private cost, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The investigation of useful knowledge has also been greatly encouraged by the late empress of Russia; and the most distant part of her vast dominions and other countries and islands have been explored, at her expense, by persons of abilities and learning, in consequence of which considerable discoveries have been made.

looks upon his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men of the village meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feast. They feed their children when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea side, and, whether it be summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings; but, when they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or else they set fire to train-oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury, or even a suspicion only, rouse them from this phlegmatick state, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without any regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair; and they put an end to their days with great apparent insensibility.

THE NORTH-WEST COAST.

OF the North-West coast of America and its adjacent islands, we have room only for the following remarks.

We include this region under one head, as there is a general resemblance between the different tribes of the inhabitants, as there is indeed between all savages. From Cape St. James to Queenhithe latitude, and very generally through all this part of the continent, immense ranges of mountains, and impenetrable forests constantly meet the eye. The summits of the mountains are ridges of rocks, white with snow. The country wears the rudest dress, being generally covered with woods to the margin of the sea; but in some places there are clear spots covered with the finest verdure. The forests are sufficient to supply all the navies of Europe. Every kind of fir that grows on the east side of America is found here. The woods ascend about two thirds of the mountains' ascent. Black currants, snake-root, and ginseng are natives here. The harbours are numerous and safe. Mountain sheep, bears, foxes, martens and ermines are common.

At Cook's river is found sulphur, black lead, coal, herring, crabs, and salmon. Villages are scattered along the coast on the harbours and rivers. Nootka stands on a rising bank, the sea in front, and woods behind.

The climate on this side of America is milder than on the eastern in the same latitude. South of 45° north it is said to be one of the finest climates in the world. The north-west winds are cool and clear. The most common winds in summer are from the west, which extend over the North Pacifick Ocean north of latitude 30° north, as from this latitude to the equator the wind is east. In the winter, storms are common from the south.

The Nootkan nation are in general robust and well proportioned; their faces are large and full, their eyes small and black, their noses broad and flat, lips thick, teeth white, visage wild. They besmear their necks and faces with red paint; in time of mourning black is the colour. Their clothing is a single frock of sea-otter skin, which reaches to the knees. In their canoes they wear a garment made from the intestines of the whale. It covers their heads, and is so long as to be tied over the whole of the canoe in which they sit, so that no water can enter. This is their more common dress. On this coast the skins of bears, racoons, and other animals are also used for clothing. The women make a cloth from the bark of a tree and the filaments of the nettle. Their heads are covered with a cap of conick form, which admits no water. The ears of the men are universally perforated with several holes in which is a string of leather, from which are suspended quills, pieces of copper, or buttons, sometimes drawing the ear down to the shoulder. They also wear round their wrists and ankles a piece of brass or leather, strung with beads, shells, and other decorations. They are generally the most filthy of mortals; but in some instances when clean, the women may vie with a fair European complexion. The females are reserved, modest, chaste. In latitude 56° 38′ north, a cusom that is common on this coast is so extravagant as to give the countenance a horrid appearance; the women wear a piece of wood let into the lip above the chin, of an oval form, seven inches in circumference. It has a groove round the edge to keep it steady in the orifice. It is the business of the women to pluck out the beard of the men. The hair on the head is black, and tied on the top of the head, or hangs down the back. In other places it is rather short, of the same length before and behind. They are divided into tribes with their respective chiefs; but a family united has a subordinate authority. From Cook's River to King George's Sound it is supposed there may be 10,000 inhabitants.

Near Prince William's Sound the natives have no towns, nor villages, nor fixed places of abode, but rove from one place to another as fancy dictates or necessity impels them. Prisoners taken in war are killed, or sold as slaves; sometimes eaten. Raw fish is their common diet; the whale is their favourite dish, oil their only sauce. Sometimes they kindle a fire by friction, and their fish is boiled in baskets, which hold water, by casting in hot stones. Songs and dances are among their amusements. The chief leads, but all join in the chorus. Their musick has an air pleasing and melancholy. A dignity and generosity of spirit is often displayed that would rival the most disinterested expressions of civilized countries. Though costly their gifts, they often disdain the idea of conferring an obligation. Gratitude is a familiar inhabitant of these uncultivated shores.

Seeing the English cautious and guarded when he and his men were on board, the indignation of the chief Wickananish roused, he left the ship, and till he was pacified by their great courtesy, he forbid his people to trade with such jealous creatures. Yet these people can feed upon human gore. Maquilla, another chief, reposes his head at night on a large pillow of human skulls, the trophies of his valour; after the bodies have furnished him a banquet of victory. When prisoners fail him, a slave, once in a month, is sacrificed to feast his bloody appetite.

When they proceed to battle, they paint their faces and bodies with red ochre, and sprinkle themselves with shining sand, which gives them a fierce and terrible appearance. The women, like the dames of Sparta, exhort the warriors to be victorious or not to return. Their battles are furious, accompanied with deeds of ferocious barbarity. In peace as well as war a continual watch is kept by the women, who, sitting by the fire, pass the wakeful night in recounting the wars of the nation, the valorous achievements of their husbands or sons. One man is posted on the outside of the house to catch the sound of danger. A relaxation of defence would produce a war, and be the signal of assault. A beautiful woman is often the occasion of war, and the price of peace. In one tribe the women have a predominant influence. This perhaps has no parallel among savages. The men submit to be beaten, nor do they presume to sell a single skin till the women give permission. In some parts the dead have the head severed from the body. The head is put into a square box, and suspended on two poles set in the ground. The body is wrapped in furs and placed between the feet of the two poles. They have one fixed meal in a day, at noon. When a child is born, a fillet is bound round the head down to the eyes to give it a certain form. They also place the infant in a kind of chair made by joining three pieces of bark. It is so formed that the child is not taken out to be fed or nursed at the breast. These savages are courteous to strangers and affable with one another. They have strong convictions of right and wrong, being bold and confident when acting right, diffident when they are doing wrong. Universally do they show marks of shame when detected and reproved. They take their game by great labour and art. One method is to wear a mask so exactly resembling the creature, that the animal takes it for one of his own species, and approaches so near as to fall a prey by the deception. They are great gamesters, and great thieves. Their canoes in many instances are neatly made, and will carry 20 or 30 men. The warriors are armed with bows and arrows barbed with bone, ragged at the point. They have also large spears pointed with muscle shells. The houses at Nootka and some other places are constructed of such light materials that they are taken down and removed when the village wishes to change its residence. The palace of Wickananish, a chief, incloses a vast area, bounded on all sides 20 feet in height. Three large trees rudely carved and painted form the rafters. These are supported at the ends and in the middle by gigantick images carved from enormous trees, compared with which, the largest masts are diminutive. The roof is boarded in such a manner as to let out the smoke, exclude the rain, or admit

light and air, as circumstances require. Several fires warm this spacious room. The door by which this building is entered is the mouth of a large carved image. Descending the chin, you enter the house where the men, women and children, who compose this family, are at least 800. Festoons of human skulls, ranged with some uniformity in every part are reckoned among the splendid ornaments of this royal palace.

But few streams of importance have been observed on this coast. Columbia River deserves notice. It enters the ocean in latitude 46° 18′ north, longitude 236° 34′ west. Twenty-two miles from the mouth, it is half a mile wide. It has been ascended in boats more than 80 miles. The idea of a north-west passage seems to be relinquished. A northern Mediterranean, or inland sea, has vanished like many other discoveries of ancient and modern date. Cook's River, it is ascertained, is only an Inlet, less than three degrees in extent, terminating in latitude 61° 29′ north, longitude 211° 17′ west. The supposed straits of De Fuca, in latitude 48° 27′ north, from which great hopes were entertained, are only an opening between the continent and a number of islands.

The following story will give an idea of their religion. It was communicated to an English commander by an intelligent youth in the following manner. He first placed a number of sticks on the ground, to which he gave separate names. One he called his father, another his grandfather, &c.: What remained he threw together; as much as to say they were the general heap of his ancestors. Then pointing to this heap, he said that when they lived, an old man entered the sound in a copper canoe with copper paddles, and every thing else in his possession of the same metal, that he paddled along the shore on which all the people were assembled to contemplate so strange a sight, that having thrown one of his copper paddles on the shore he himself landed. The remarkable stranger then told the natives that he came from the sky, that they would all die, and rise again, to live in the place whence he came. The people killed the old man and took his canoe. The narrator of the story said that the images in their houses were to represent the old man, and to remind them of his mission from the sky.

Mr. Mackenzie has given new information concerning a considerable tract of North-America. This voyager on lakes and rivers, embarked at Fort Chepewyan on the south of the Lake of the Hills, in lat. 58° 40′ N. lon. 110° 30′ W. in June, 1789, in a canoe of birch bark, with ten associates, three of whom were in another canoe. His course was northwesterly to seek the Frozen Ocean. Mountains and vallies, dreary wastes and wide spreading forests, lakes and rivers, succeed each other in his descriptions. Very small bands of wandering savages were the only people he discovered. After leaving the Lake of the Hills, he entered the Slave River, from which he passed to the Slave Lake, a large body of fresh water in about lat. 61° and 62° N. and lon. 110° to 120° W. The country round wears a barren aspect, but produces a great variety of berries, and is covered with large trees of spruce-pine and white birch. Where these are destroyed, poplars succeed, though none were seen before.

From this lake he entered Mackenzie's River, a deep and spacious stream. On its banks he found encampments of Knisteneaux Indians. This wandering tribe spread over a vast extent of country. Their language is the same as that of the natives on the waters of the St. Lawrence and the coast of Labrador. They are of moderate stature, well proportioned and active. Their dress is simple, countenance open, and eyes black. Their women are the most comely of savages, and not inattentive to their own persons, but still pay more attention to the decoration of the men. These people are affable, indulgent to their children, and hospitable to strangers. Chastity they consider not as a virtue; they make temporary exchanges of wives, and a proffer of them to strangers is a part of their hospitality; incest and bestiality are not uncommon. At their funerals the mourners cut off their hair, lacerate their flesh, blacken their faces; and widows, as in the East, sometimes sacrifice themselves. Smoking precedes all matters of importance. This sacred rite settles all differences between contending persons; it is never violated. No person may join in this solemn act, who has cohabited with a woman within 24 hours—he "is unclean."

After proceeding down this river to lat. 69° 1′ north, and about lon. 134° west, he reached the tide waters of the Frozen Ocean; but in the middle of July was forbidden to proceed any further by extensive fields of ice, and returned to Chepewyan Fort, having been absent 102 days.

In October, 1792, he proceeded on a voyage to the North Pacifick Ocean. From the Lake of the Hills he ascended the Peace River, which in the driest season is a quarter of a mile in breadth: the soil on each side is low and rich. Like other unchristianized people, the Indians on this river practise polygamy. Their women are in the lowest state of debasement; more indecent and filthy than the men. The females perform all the drudgery allotted to brutes in civilized society; excepting what aid they receive from a few small dogs. While the men carry nothing but a gun, their wives and daughters follow with such oppressive burdens, that if they lay them down they are unable to raise them again. This help the men will not deign to lend them; they often, therefore, lean against a tree for a partial, temporary relief.

These people are total strangers to the most simple remedies in time of sickness. At their funerals among other extravagant tokens of grief, the females, for the death of a favourite son, or husband, or father, sometimes cut off a finger at the first joint. Some of the old women have not a whole finger on either hand. The property of the person deceased is all destroyed, that the sight of things connected with him, may not renew their grief. These savages are great gamesters, pursuing the business sometimes for a succession of days and nights.

In the mountains which separate the waters of the Atlantick and Pacifick Oceans, are several chasms, which emit smoke and fire with a sulphureous smell. Finding the streams of the west did not tend directly to the sea, Mr. Mackenzie proceeded by land for a considerable time, finding in general a tolerable road or path made by the sav-

ges. As he advanced nearer the ocean, the settlements of the natives were more numerous and permanent; the manner of living more comfortable, the state of society somewhat improved: men took a share in domestick labours, and women were more respected. Architecture was improved; painting and carving had made some progress. The timber of a house was seen hewn on two sides; the end of the ridge-pole was carved in the form of a snake's head; the inside of several buildings were decorated with painted hieroglyphicks. In some of their villages are temples supported by pillars, carved in the shape of men. These are painted black and red. Their waters are stored with salmon and they hospitably invite the stranger to share in tehir plenty: a variety of berries enrich the feast. Copper, iron and brass are frequently seen near the sea, which the natives had purchased of European ships. The soil is good; alder trees are seven feet and a half in circumference and 40 feet without a branch; cedars are 24 feet in circumference, and proportionably high. Willows, spruce, birch, and hemlock are common. Their canoes of cedar carry 50 persons. In some instances, when a person dies, he is buried till another of the family shall decease, then he is taken up and burned and the other person laid in the same grave. They believe in a good and evil spirit, and have seasons for publick and private worship. In lat. 52° 21′ 33″, and lon. 128° 2′ west, Mr. Mackenzie reached the great Pacifick Ocean, and with vermillion inscribed on the side of a rock by the shore—

"*Alexander Mackenzie, from Canada by land, the twenty-second of July, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-three.*

END OF VOLUME I.

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